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ABSTRACT

These four issues contain the following articles: "A Case Documentation of English Instruction at the Elementary School Level: The Cross-Cultural Impact of Native Speaker Teachers" (Hsien-Chin Liou) [written in Chinese]; "A Collaborative Tale with Two Taiwanese EFL College Groups" (Feng-Ming Chi); "A Developmental Study on Phonological Awareness and Spelling in Taiwanese EFL Children" (Li-Chen Chien and Shu-Hui Chen); "Designing Role Plays for the Language Class" (Jian-Shiung Shie); "Complementary Relevance of Machine Translation to Human Translation: A Theoretical Study" (Chung-Ling Shih); "The Politics of Locality: Globalization, Postcolonial English, and the Cultural Reconsideration of English Teaching and Learning" (Kun-Liang Chuang) [written in Chinese]; "A Preliminary Study of English Conversation Instruction at the Universities in Taiwan" (Shau-Ju Chang); "A Study of the Pedagogy of Using the Western Performance of Literature to Teach the English Poetry" (Yane-Hao Chen); "Learning in English: The Survival Strategies of Hong Kong Students" (Peter Herbert); "Reflection as an Integral Part of the Teacher Training Program" (Yi-Hsiu Lai); "Impersonation as an Optional Module of Language-Teaching Activities" (Jian-Shiung Shie); "English Syllable Structure: Theory and Teaching Application" (Bei-Wu Wang) [written in Chinese]; "Integrating Phonics Instruction and Whole Language Principles in an Elementary School EFL Classroom" (Meei-Ling Liaw); "A Study of Using Web Concordancing for English Vocabulary Learning in a Taiwanese High School Context" (Chuen-Yi Lee and Hsien-Chin Liou); "Predicting Second Language Reading Ability: A Reexamination of the Threshold Hypothesis Exploring the Contributions of Intrinsic Motivation" (Shih-Ming Liu); "Why Peer Comments Fail" (Hui-Tzu Min); "English Syllable Structure: Theory and Teaching Application" (Bei-Wu Wang) [written in Chinese]; "Integrating Children's Picture Books with Teaching Children English as a Foreign Language in 9-Year Joint Curricula Plan for Elementary and Junior High Schools" (Hui-Li Lin) [written in Chinese]; "Bilingual Policy and English Education in Singapore" (Hui-Ling Hus) [written in Chinese]; "Chinese-English Translation and English Writing Ability: On the Sustainability of Translation Tests" (Chi-Chiang Shei)

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[written in Chinese]; "Genre Analysis and Academic English Teaching: Improvement of Abstracts Written by Taiwanese Ph.D. Students" (Hieng-Hiong Liong) [written in Chinese]; "Task Difficulty in Semi-Direct Speaking Tests: Code Complexity" (Row-Whei Wu); and "L2 Acquisition of Subject-Prominence by EFL Students in Taiwan" (Chun-Yin Chen, Hsin-Yi Huang, and Hui-Chi Liao). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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English Teaching & Learning

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英語教學

English Teaching & Learning

《英語教學》(*English Teaching & Learning*)為學術性刊物，旨在鼓勵英語教學研究、促進學術及經驗交流、並提升英語教學水準。凡有關國內外實證性英語教學研究成果及理論之探討或評介、嶄新具創意之教學法介紹、成功教學經驗分享、課程研發、課程評量、教材評量、師資培育及其他與英語教學相關議題（如雙語教育、心理語言學、社會語言學、外語習得等）之研究報告，均歡迎投稿。

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英語教學 *English Teaching & Learning*
27.1 (July 2002): 1-20

一項國小英語教學方案之紀實--引進外師之「跨文化」衝擊

劉顯親
清華大學

摘要

本文自一位英語教育規劃委員會成員及英語師資培育者之角度，以教育民族誌方法記錄國內某縣市自事前半年規劃到在國小實施英語教學一學期之過程。該縣市全面自二年級至六年級實施英美外國籍教師（外師）與中籍老師（中師）協同教學；二至四年級教材自編，五六年級教材由各校自教育部審定過之版本中擇一使用。全案由該縣市教育局規劃，委託民間專業語言訓練機構執行，並由教育局主導評量實施績效。本文記錄這一年參與多次規劃會議，實地訪視課堂內教學，觀察，訪談中外師，提供筆者心得及詮釋；也探討國小英語教學之社會面考量，並討論外師將英語文化帶入小學校園後對行政、中師、學生、及家長之影響。最後並提出一些建言。

關鍵字：國小英語教學 教育民族誌方法 英美外國籍教師 協同教學
「跨文化」衝擊

壹、緣起

去年九月國小英語教學已於國內五六年級全面開動了，在此之前很多縣市早已「偷」跑、提早施行，社會殷殷盼望及家長強力支持及壓力應是最大的推動力（詳見戴，1998 之全台國小英語教學之調查報告;施[illegible], 2001,全國大半縣市實施概況;張玉芳,2002 苗栗縣）。雖然教育部訂定的「九年一貫課程總綱」明定自九十學年度起，應將「英語」納入國小五六年級正式之語文課程內容，然而有一些縣市無教師缺額或未能即時聘入合格之專任英語教師；這對起步較慢的國內某一縣市（簡稱 A 市）引起高度焦慮；本個案之 26 所小學中，需 37 位合格英語老師；實際情況：各校具備經教育部正式合格英文教師不及五成，加上代理代課老師，全市尚不足六名之多。各縣市因應方法不同：訓練原有老師、聘用代課兼實習，最理想者是有缺額聘到了教育部培訓之合格英語老師。至於國小一至四年級各校紛紛設法去補強學生之英語課程，有縣市善用家長資源，請能教英語且有空之家長來當義工媽媽（如台中市之進德國小，可惜未能長期維繫下去）。

本文用教育民族誌(educational ethnography，黃，2000; Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999）寫作法來記錄某一縣市進行國小英文教學一年之歷程：它含事前半年規

劃，實際教學一學期。此縣市自二年級到六年級全面引進外籍英語老師與中籍老師協同教學。本文基於跨文化衝擊及對整體方案之利弊做一省思，提出一些建議。

在此個案之A縣市，或許有「高人」指點：換人做不如換「腦」做[1]，過去本國籍老師（簡稱中師）多年來無法把國人英文教好，此時應請英美外籍人士（簡稱外師）來教，才來得及趕上其他縣市，發揮英語教學的功效，並匡正國人英語聽說能力低落的積弊。另外，A市26所國小分散山海，教育資源分配很不平均，有些市中心國小已提前自一年級實施英語教學，但另一些國小則連能教五六年級之英語老師也不具備；如堅持在九十學年度全用中師也的確面臨培訓合格者緩不濟急的窘境。為能提供弱勢族群及偏遠地區學童免費學英文，若能由教育局出面聘外師全面分配，比各校自治自行解決師資不足問題，更能達到英語教育機會均等之理想。此大方針既定，接下來是處理法令問題，A市教育局研究過後，決定以教育局外包，委託民間專業語言訓練機構承辦（簡稱委外單位）。教育局同時並在去年二月，組成一成員十六位的「國小英語教育規劃委員會」來規劃（一）聘外師及實施教學實務（含陪同教育局長到地方議會說明）；（二）擬訂與委外單位合約內容上網招標；（三）評選委外單位；（四）評選教材，及審查自編之二至四年級教材；（五）協助監督委外單位整體實施過程（這一階段已外包，由委外單位負責執行）（六）進行整體方案之評量。委員會成員有教育局科長、科員、小學家長代表、小學英語老師代表（非正式課程內教學但為編制內，且教育部培訓合格之教師）、國中教師代表、及大專教師及學者專家代表。我在不知是何人提議給局長情況之下，進入該委員會。

二月第一次規劃會議結束後，我與幾位委員心中有很多問號：為何全用外師？如何招聘適任外師？如何有效管理？他們如何和中師協同教學？等等。更深刻、批判性的思考問題是：我們是否來為教育局的「全面用外師政策」背書的？或許是有點使命感及理想，感覺此方案在「全面用外師」政策下有風險性，但或許我們詳盡的規劃能讓它導向專業，造福地方小學之莘莘學子，是否背書之答案將在本文結語處評估。A市教育局局長充份授權一位有小學校長資格之專職科員（簡稱L）掌理和各委員之溝通及召開會議。我本以為參與三到四次會議便可「規劃」完畢，沒想到其頻率自二月到六月底竟達十次以上（有兩次緊急得尚需在晚上召開），而且，只要英語教學繼續，會議就會一直召開下去。

我個人出發點是以學習角度來為地方之國小英語教學盡一份力，畢竟自己研究專長並非國小英語教學，因此，其間所需投入的時間及精神之投資代價極高。但現在回想起來：「一分耕耘、一分收穫」，這是一個「社會化」的專業成長過程：在規劃及實施過程中，我聽到了委外單位、各層中籍教師、教育局官員、家長、學校行政人員、外籍教師、地方議員的心聲。我參與教材篩選及編審之過程，我有幸實地訪視六位外籍教師之課堂內真實教學（均含中師現場協同）。在我過去大專及國中的教學經驗，其面向從未如此完整過。

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[1] 引自規劃成員之一，是位當醫生之學生家長。

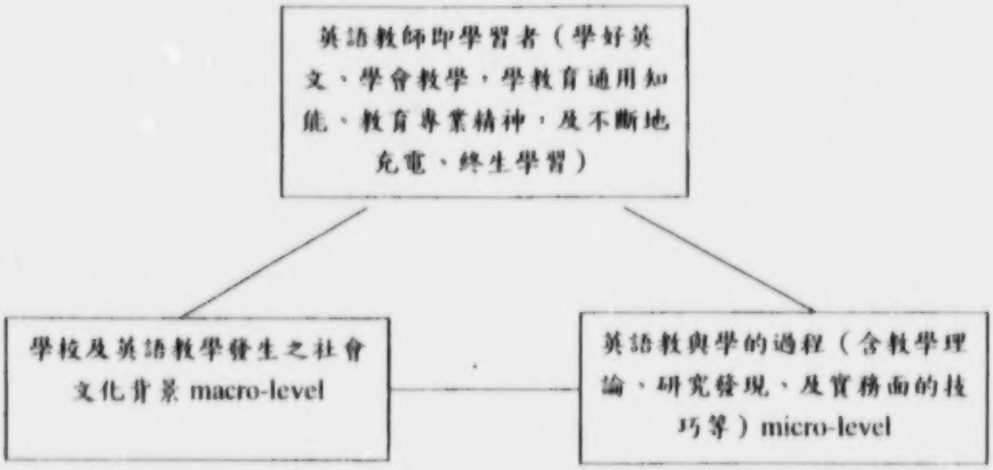
陳淑嬌教授提出語言習得規劃，實施過程可從資源、內容、方式及情境四方面分析（2000, p. 56）；而語言社會情境包括人民之語言行為與態度，以及行政與教學人員及人民態度之配合程度等；而影響成果的則為規劃目標及實施過程之各項努力。家長很希望自己的孩子不要輸在起跑點，而大部份校長及行政人員十分贊同教育局主導來全面規劃此案，畢竟各個小學分別辦理是有其挑戰性，而偏遠地區小學更面臨聘不到老師之「近不可能」的高難度任務。本案是為此兩類對象擬納的。

陳教授認為當國人期待和政策目標不一致，規劃者應與各階層人士（一般社會大眾、行政人員及教師）進行協調，使大家對語言、學習、和教學的觀點與信念力求一致；而這過程是需花不短的時間。畢竟國人和學界（例見 Marinova-Todd, et al., 2000; Singleton & Lengyel, 1995; Lightbown & Spada, 1993）對提早進行英語教學看法南轅北轍。陳教授又建議規劃者應先了解當地社會情境之各種限制（p. 65）；我們很清楚的是社會大眾深信「越早學越好」，教育當局會妥協「即使時數短，越多年級辦理越好」，即齊頭式平等，爭議最小。例如台中市教育局擬於九一年起由小二開始教英文（利用彈性時間，每週一節），逐年增加，到九三年，小二至小六都上英文課（中國時報，2002/1/23, 17版「全市國小英語教學向下延伸計畫」）。這是為落實胡市長政見（提昇國際觀、有利將來就學就業），二至四年級教材自編，師資用本國籍老師，預估教材編輯及研習需經費九十二萬元。我們都知一週四十分鐘太有限了，但一般人仍堅信學了總比沒學好。此對比詳見表一，因此規劃方向已因看法歧異而朝某一既定目標走。

表一：學界及社會大眾對提早學英文看法比較

	年齡	課程規劃	師資	對「良好」英文老師之印象	教育投資
學界看法	未有定論：晚學未必不利，早學未必全面有利。年齡不足以解釋所有成敗原因	應有一定密度才能有效（每週上課一次40分鐘，難教易忘）	有專業培育過之中外師均宜	對大部份優劣中外師有持平看法：和培育過程及個人專業發展有關	用在刀口有效處、注意教育機會均等
社會大眾看法	越早越好	有英文課一定比無英文課好（每週一次40分鐘也好）	任何或大部份外師一定較中師好	主要印象集中在不良中師及「想像中之優良外師」；或將國人英語不好全歸因於中師教學不佳	因家長社經地位不同而有天淵之別

我深信教師之專業發展是動態的，受社會文化、個人、及外來所吸收的新知所影響。在我對英語師資培育了解中（Liou, 2001），我認同 Freeman 及 Johnson (1998)的理論，他們認為研究「語言師資培育」議題應同時具備三方面的知識來源(1)瞭解教師是學習教學的學生，(2)瞭解語言教與學的過程，(3)瞭解教學發生的學校及其社會文化背景(見圖一)。本文在第三點「教學發生的學校及其社會文化背景」有詳盡的說明。國內學界過去一直注重(2)微觀(micro-level)之課室內教學，例如教材及教學技巧，而忽略(3)宏觀(macro-level)之教學發生的學校及其社會文化背景。社會背景十分重要，它關係課堂內教學所能發揮的程度。


英語教師即學習者（學好英文、學會教學，學教育通用知能、教育專業精神，及不斷地充電、終生學習）
學校及英語教學發生之社會文化背景 macro-level
英語教與學的過程（含教學理論、研究發現、及實務面的技巧等）micro-level

圖一：英語師資培育研究者須涉獵的知識範疇

例如目前國內學英文風氣很盛，一般人觀念都同意英文很重要，可是學好似乎頗不容易。有些人很容易就怪罪教學品質乃至中師口音不理想，其實台灣大社會環境使用英文機會太少是關鍵性的原因。學校及社會大環境深信外師是最理想師資，是本案能推動最大之助力。

貳、過程-酸甜苦辣甘苦談

（甲）規劃階段—美麗的新世界？

規劃方式主要以會議共識制進行，由於委員會成員大家原先並不認識，背景及看問題角度迥異，溝通互動上之協調也與內涵進度並進。不過能包含行政、家長、教師及學者專家，這面向廣度是夠的。有時我們認為某方案採某方式進行很理想，但校長代表會指出在學校內執行不務實之處，因此整體規劃內容是協商出來的。委員會成員也曾參觀已實施英語教學之其他縣市的成功範例，例如觀摩台北縣某國小成功之發音教學。

在大目標上我們一致認同學英文是可久可長，重要的是讓學生開始能感興趣，由英美本國籍老師進入教室，讓英文文化伴隨語言帶進來，讓學生以全面全人式接觸了解英文、學會了英文。規劃重點見表二。

表二：國小英語教學規劃重點

目的： 一、增進學生英文認讀與會話的能力，以奠定學習英語之基礎。 二、輔導學生英語的溝通與運用技巧，以增進國際交流的能力。 三、提昇國民認識英語文化，以開拓學生胸襟與視野。
實施原則： 一、教學內容：以生活化簡易實用的題材為原則。 二、教學方式：以生動活潑互動式、遊戲式的教學為原則。 三、教學評量：兼顧形成性評量與總結性評量，涵蓋聽說讀寫能力。
對象：A市26所國小823班、約29000位學童；及三所縣市立完全中學高中部（因份量極少故不在本文討論範圍）。
課程：二三年級每週一節四十分鐘，四年級1.5節六十分鐘[2]，五六年級兩節八十分鐘。外師以外加方式和原導師或英語任課老師協同教學。
教材之評選及編製：二至四年級教材自編，五六年級教材由各校自教育部審定過之版本中擇一使用。
評量：多元評量，如紙筆評量、聽、說、唱歌、及表演。
其他配套措施：培育本國師資、教學資源網路及中心等
經費：一學年需台幣7600萬

以下補充教材及配套措施兩項。

(1)課程教材：委外單位搜羅適合五六年級用的、且為教育部審定通過之十一種版本教材，以及二至四年級十三套，由近十位各級英語教師組成之委員會先根據一些原則（參考如施、2000；曾、1999等文獻），花了五個多小時翻閱、評量後票選出教育部通過之五六年教材三套。然而當事後開放讓全市國小英文種子教師評選時，他們又選出八套，教育局認為各校自主，不宜強制規範學校使用委員會所選出之三套。在十二月，我去訪視的L校內之外師C很不喜歡五六年級「BN」之教科書版本，她認為應多用整個字教學，A as in apple, 不要重複A-A-A，因為她認同「全語言教學」（whole language approach）理念。然而該校之協同中籍老師乃國立大學外文所碩士班畢業，有七年兒童美語教學經驗，則認為「BN」提供每班很多教具、字卡等等，有利她們教學；她並相信國小英語是應是中師主導。可見專家認為好的教科書，第一線的教師會因日常教學之需求或方便，選擇其他版本。

由於二到四年級教材限於經費（每位學生NT$100元以下），及所評選之市面上教材不盡理想，教育局鼓勵委員中擇人設法自編，也能為A市規劃案增色。因此，承辦人L連絡到一組老師、外籍教師及美工人員，由他們將委員會理念落實到教科書中（第一冊以「故事」為重點特色，第二冊以「會話」為特色，第三冊以phonics為主）。為準備第一、二冊編寫，教育局為每冊召開三次教材評選小

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[2] 利用該日早上二十分鐘之導師時間，加上原有一課堂之四十分鐘，未造成行政上重大不便。

組會議。

(2)配套措施: 此全體方案在培育本國師資上，除在八月份提供短期培訓課程；在寒假，也規劃各校英語種子教師赴紐西蘭遊學兩週。另在某國小校園內建一英語教學資源中心，此考量是為管理方便。委員會曾強力推薦應分散資源，每校一書櫃，有些英文藏書，供各校老師就近及時參考利用。但此議未被採行，因為管理不便，預算也嚴重不足。

（乙）實施階段

委員會派代表至國外進行外師資格評選、面談及決定聘任，總共聘用 65 位外師，主要來自美加（34 位），其餘來自英國、南非、紐西蘭、澳洲及菲律賓。由此可見，在台灣之外籍英語老師本來就是帶入「多元之英文文化」。在外師真正上場實際教學之前-八月下旬，委外單位與 A 縣市教育局對不同老師及對象進行長短不一之培訓：外師、本國行政人員、中籍種子老師、協同老師及義工老師。外師來台後短期培訓含文化習俗了解、A 市導覽、大班教學技巧、實地教學實習；同時，委外單位負責對外師總督導，和生活適應及教學（在台資深外師負責當組長）上之督導輔助。真正教學時，委外單位尚需負責交通接送問題。

在第一學期教學實施過程中，遇嚴重狀況，有學校擬撤換某外師時，委員會組成一小組，前往訪視溝通，了解情況。

（丙）成功乎？失敗乎？整體計畫之期中訪視評量

本計畫實施三個月後，於去年十二月初進行「執行評估」，它包含（一）巡迴、輔導、諮詢、評鑑以了解委外機構於學校執行情形；（二）進行對委外機構執行評鑑；（三）ABC 英語嘉年華會-學生英語學習成果展示。

(1)過程：11 月 28 日召開行前說明會，11 月 29 日到 12 月 7 日以每校半天、三人一組方式巡迴、輔導、諮詢、評鑑本方案在學校實施績效。我們實地到每一所國小訪視後，使用多項工具來收集資料：外師評量表、訪談問題、中師訪談問題、學生訪談問題、家長訪談問題。外師之評量標準和一般對英文教師專業之要求類似：英文口語能力、教學流程、技巧、師生互動、及教室管理等等面向之評量。參與人員有委外單位派一員協助、教授專家一位當召集人並訪視兩節課及訪談外師，小學教師一人訪視兩節課及訪談中師及學生，學校行政人員一人訪視兩節課及訪談家長及該校行政人員。12 月 10 日召開所有訪評人員之綜合座談會，逐一討論每校實施情況，我全程在場。我隨機取樣親自訪視兩校，實施情況屬中上，見表三簡單比較表。詳細記錄見附錄。

表三：訪視學校比較

學校	位置	大小（以班級數為單位）	家長社經地位	校長英文程度	協同老師角色	外師專業素養及當堂教學
N	市郊	6 班	低	可	極有限	普通
L	市中心	72 班	高	極有限	有發揮	普通

個別外籍教師之個人教學信念，有人對兒童英語教學的看法是最先要讓學生對英文不感到害怕，並盡量給他們足夠的英語刺激 (exposure)。有些外師對教育當局所設的教學目標並不十分清楚，因未被充分告知。

至於外師和中籍老師協同教學的情形，大部份外師反應中籍老師都很幫忙，合作過程都很愉快，讚賞且感謝校方的支持。然而在我們觀察中，所謂合作，似乎只是中籍老師幫忙翻譯，管理秩序而已，對於教材如何使用，活動設計與流程等的討論似乎不多，這是學校內「協同」文化之問題。

有外師表示希望能跟學生有更多相處的時間，除英語課外能參加學生一些其他的活動。有位外師 K 對教材有一些意見，她在別校教一班六年級的進階班，但進階班和初級班都用同一本教材，對進階班的學生來說太容易，身為一個英語教學新手，她不知道到哪找適當的補充教材。這是校方及委外單位和老師協調問題，如該校五六年級依英文程度分班時即應採用不同教材。

我們發現委外機構問題含換外師未告知學校，內部常換工作人員，對外師短期訓練不紮實（有項替者下了飛機隔天就上課），對外師無溝通管道或溝通方式不當（缺乏跨文化經驗）。

(2)跨文化衝擊：外師將英語文化帶入小學校園後，對行政、中師、學生、及家長都產生影響。由家長乃至學校行政人員角度看，只要外師熱心，能和小學生上下課相處愉快，外師幾乎是「東方不敗」，完全被接納了，很少人會去看專業面之教學實際技巧等。然而仍有部份家長表示希望學童回家有書寫作業,同時學童能和外師直接溝通為佳，並強調教學時應多照顧到程度低或學習慢的學生。我的訪視感覺外師約能了解學童七成程度，比中師低很多；至於「照顧學童個別之學習需求」又和教學熱誠息息相關，這是大家都懂得的道理：老師好否因其個性、信念而異，和中外師無多大關係；至於教學是否適合某一學生又因個案而有差別。

(2.1)行政上，外師管理相當不易：外師之管理、文化差異、生活適應、乃至專業素養再再讓我們捏一把冷汗，而委外單位經驗不足更令主其事之專員 L 歷經千辛萬苦。委外單位及 L 一再努力，但仍有過半個案之處理不如人意。首先是美國慘遭九一一恐怖事件，馬上有幾位來自美國之老師立即離職。其餘問題如：無故缺席、請假未補課、代課未能和前一節課內容銜接；無備課、課程無設計、教學技巧生澀；教室管理因文化差異產生問題等等。對一新方案施行，不免嘗試錯誤，但因採用外師所涉及跨文化差異，問題程度便凸顯出來。

(2.2)中外師協同教學不易：有外師將中師貶為小助教，中師持惡婆婆心理督促無經驗之外師，中師協同老師在外師上課時未出席等等。人與人相處本可預見這種種問題，何況「協同教學」乃至「合作」並非台灣文化之一部份。

(2.3)成功之跨文化交流：這一「英語教學的教育故事」也並非無優點及成功面向：中籍種子教師在此方案中扮演建構學校英文環境之靈魂人物（設計如英語日、通關密語、詩歌朗誦、話劇比賽、英語護照、將英語和古典樂如 Mozart 結合等等活動），引導外師融入該校文化。同校外師彼此協助共同成長，班導付出額外時間補強學生英語學習，校長和學童一起學英文等等。這是個教育故事，參與的人多少帶有一些教育愛才走入此行，教育界常有感人小故事及高情操的「小」人物（小指其地位非行為），他們真令人感佩。

(2.4)異中求同：當外籍人士遇到台灣社會及文化時，因觀念差異，常帶來一定程度之文化衝擊，例如中外對處罰學生概念差異，在英國小學可將學生趕到校外，在台灣則不被允許。中外語文表達及情緒之傳達，在在因差異而需包容及相處之時間以建立了解乃至互信。至於課餘校方因善意及好客，帶外師去參觀 A 市民俗景點、飲食內容乃至禁忌不同，或宗教不同而不入廟參拜；這些都是小節，不過也著實讓接待之校方耳目一新。

(3) 方案執行評估總結：在綜合座談會中，對此案有三項結論：(一) 學校文化對接納外師有影響：同一位外師在兩校可有迥異表現，乃至造成去留不同結果。(二) 學校英語種子教師扮演關鍵性角色。(三) 校長規劃觀念關係該校英語教學成果，有校長幾年即前開始聘任英語能力優秀之新任教師，該科教學似較能紮根。總結論是：26 所學校中僅有一所學校校長及家長很反對此方案「全用外師」做法，其餘多肯定；成功者之歸因是該校之英語種子教師扮演關鍵性角色。

在 L 將各方資料匯集整理後，總結論是在 26 校中有 23 校家長及師生支持本方案，認為外籍教師確能提昇英語學習效果，並希望本政策有延續性。根據學生對外師上英文調查結果：56%喜歡，24%普通，而 20%不喜歡。至於委外單位被評鑑為甲等，未得優等，不續約也未能優先承辦第二學期聘用外師業務。在座談會中，建議未來方向是應提撥經費大量培訓本國英語師資，因為市政整體考量及此案弊病不少，代價過高。中師才是可長可久之計。

（丁）第二學期政策丕變？

去年十二月一日舉行縣市長改選，A 市換黨執政，本方案因屬教育類，政策延續性重要且必要，大部份參與的人都認為不會改變，甚有老神在在心態。雖然，今天結果的確續行，但其間轉化卻是一夕數變，充份顯示政治因素影響本案施行方向。

今年一月十一日召開規劃委員會會議，得知市長因財政不佳，已刪除本案第二學期預算 3800 萬，擬向教育部申請補助款（據聞教育部傾向不以個案處理，亦不補助此類申請案）。當場，所有委員均十分錯愕，紛紛設法思考「節省」但仍用外師之替代案，忽略了當日討論事項之提案是「在考慮本市失業率偏高，善

用本國英語教師資源等因素，試研議培訓本國教師擔任英語教學之可行性」。該日雖也討論出逐年逐步降低外師比例及經費，並積極培訓本國師資辦法，但對此案面臨立即腰斬，委員會成員顯露出無比失望心情，大家深覺如此中斷對小學排課及家長、學生都很難交待，而且第一學期之投資形同完全浪費。該日我們也了解市長在市政項目優先順序中，此案被排在補助小學營養午餐及教科書之後（教科書費僅 80 萬，比照其他縣市做法）。教育局代局長表示：只要確實需要，都會以墊付方式辦理追加預算轉正（中國時報，2002/1/15, 17 版）；續辦與否似乎在一念之間，但我們好像已在等下週「宣判死刑」。我們的立場不宜直接去遊說市長改變政策。騷動的媒體以「外籍教師的預算究竟是誰刪除的？」報導市議會於去年 12 月 24 日刪除 13 億，項目中「以沒有迫切性項目及前市長留下的政策，優先採取包裹式刪除」，但議長也答應如確實需要，可以墊付方式辦理（中國時報，2002/1/16, 17 版）。我的直覺是「停辦」已是市府既定方向，培育本國師資是補救方案；雖然中師培訓緩不濟急，但面臨財政困境之壓力，「辦與不辦，孰是孰非？」見仁見智。當然，恐怕市長更需去面對其選民之家長，提出合情理的解釋，並面對那壓力。緣起、緣滅，沒錢一切免談。

一月十五日，奇蹟出現，教育部竟對 A 市申請案裁定：部份補助五六年級經費一千九百萬（以「英語教學實驗」方式，補助外師教學、教材及培訓中師研習），其他不足部份，市長也打算全數編列預算支應（中國時報，2002/1/16, 17 版），外師教學又自敗部復活!這過程主要是因有副議長、議員陳情及十四所國小家長連署結果。不是規劃委員會能影響得到的。

除了「外師教學」起死回生，一月十八日報載：市長更進一步，做出重大決策，現有二到六年級英語教學向下延伸到一年級，將五六年及兩堂外師課改為一堂為中師、一堂為外師，多出來者分配到一年級。一年級無考試、無教科書、無壓力教學，教學以說故事和發音教學為主（中國時報，2002/1/18, 17 版）。承辦人 L 說明九十年第二學期來不及辦理一年級教學。

此案一轉三折，主要影響力來自家長：不續辦，剝奪既得利益，造成民怨。有家長表示，如未由政府主辦，學習英語機會貧富不均，向外師學英語成為經濟優勢家庭的特權。何況本案在 A 市，家長支持度高，提供親子共學英語風氣，形成 A 市特色，引起其他縣市擬仿做施行。

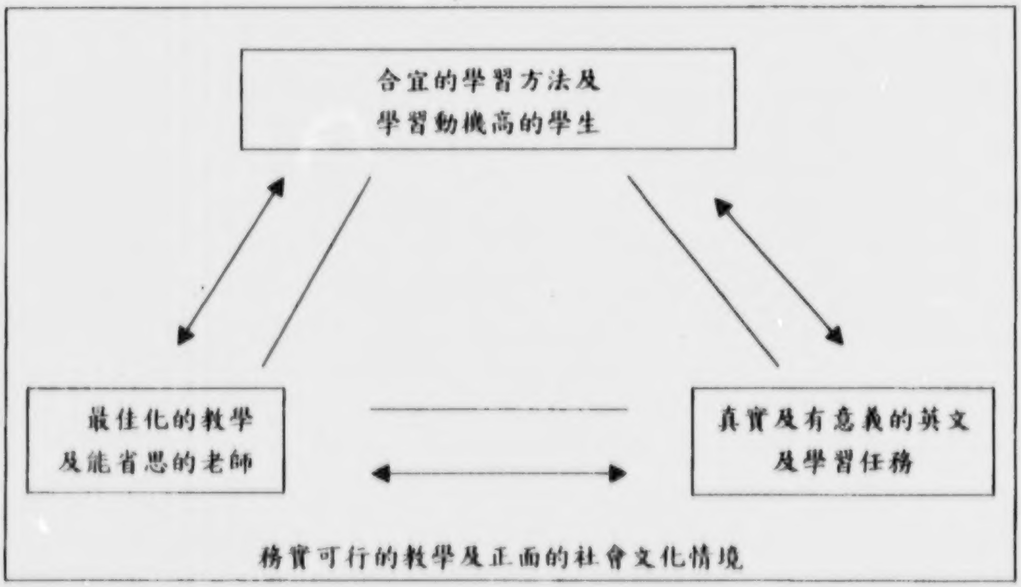
本案預定於今年五月三十日前辦理結果總評估。第二學期換了較有效率之委外單位，也帶入另一批新外師，整體進行得比較平穩，但仍因經費不足未編預算評量學生學完英語後英文程度之績效。

參、討論

本文紀錄在國內某一縣市實施國小英語教學自規劃到實施一學期的實例，提出很初步但很完整面向之資料。

成功的英文教學需具備圖一彼此互動影響之三要素（劉及楊，2001, 第十

章）：首先，我們需有務實可行的教學及正面的社會文化情境；另外不可或缺的三要素是：合宜的學習方法及學習動機高的學生、最佳化的教學及能省思的老師、真實及有意義的英文及學習任務。本個案之英語教師個別之教學情況與學生學習面的有系統資料是比較不足之處（含教學理論、研究發現－如 Liou & Huang, 1997－及實務面的技巧等）。



圖二：英文教學成功之考量面向

在台灣，國小英語教學已具正面的社會文化情境，採用「外師」之英語教學雖可行、但經濟考量面上是不務實的。用外師和中師相比是五至六倍的代價；然而要去期待五至六倍的「學習效果」，在短期內是不可蹟的。此方案即今是在社會家長之殷殷期盼下施行，但卻是項高成本、高風險之教育投資；而「全用外師」更是高爭議性的議題。學界逐漸地提醒大眾「非以英文為母語之英文教師」（在本案中即中師，簡稱 NNSs 教師）在英語教學之優勢及重要性（Milambiling, 2000），因為中師能與學生分享中文知識文化及學英文經驗，可以成為學生學英文之模範，而且深切了解學生之背景及未來需求。Cook（2000）調查學童是否傾向偏好外籍英文老師（以英文為其母語，簡稱 NSs 教師），結果各國小孩不同，喜好比例自 18%至 45%不等。可見外師並非萬應靈丹。Jin 及 Cortazzi (1998)在中國做的研究更發現中國學生未必喜歡外籍老師，中師及外師各有所長；而且中國文化中對學習看法有和西方迥異之處，那些根深蒂固的文化觀念恐會對學英文，尤其是外師教學帶來一些限制。

Kramsch (1998)及 Jin 及 Cortazzi (1998) 均強調跨文化溝通是今日外語學習之

首要目標，因為「英語」及NSs並非單一語言或單一民族。大家都能體會英語是國際語言，用英文的人的確並非NSs；當地球國際村逐漸形成時，NNSs人口越來越多，能和不同國家的人，在不同場合用正確且合宜的英文溝通才是我們教學的目標。

長期投資大量金錢聘用外師非A市市政府負擔得起，因此A市未來擬向培育本國籍教師方向走。在台灣這種外語環境，學好英文需密集且有一定的年限，主要的是學了要不斷地運用，否則，易忘難學會。

另外有些問題並非全因外師而引起，例如學生之學習動機：我們發現二年級學生學得興高采烈，而六年級似乎學甚麼科目都不帶勁，這令一位外師S深感挫折。六月份（聯合報, 6/29/2002）我們得知一項最新資料：國中基本學力測驗的英文科量尺出現「雙峰」曲線，集中到高分或低分，不僅顯示城鄉差距，是否顯示提早學提早放棄的學生較多？這和國二另兩項要素息息相關

「最佳化的教學及能省思的老師」這一層面，因每位老師能否不斷地在專業上成長而異。就「真實及有意義的英文及學習任務」而言，外師是真實有意義之英文發音及文化帶入者，至於真實有意義之任務學習乃至外師在教室內所用之語言，則視教師之教學理念及做法而定。我們所訪視到的外師 A 怕學生不懂其較難英文，一味用慢動作來「演」，很少提供符合情境之英文「語言」，學生雖當場很愉快，老師上課也費力得大量耗損體力，長期來看，未必能保證學習效果，而且該老師反省得到這要點且能改變，找出改善的教學技巧嗎？他會繼續留在台灣教國小英語嗎？

最佳化教學除了教法還有教材，即「真實及有意義的英文」。有位外師對教材建議：希望每一課的內容之間能有多一點的連貫與適當的重覆，如此學生才能有足夠的練習與複習，且慢慢能造出更長、有意義的句子。例如：This is a cat. That is a dog. 並不真實；但 My name is Ping. I have a cat. But I don't have a dog. 讓學生能說和自己生活相關的事，就「真實」、有意義得多了[3]。這對國內教材編寫廠商及人員有啟發性：即使英文程度很基礎，也能達到簡單的功能性表達，編寫人員需具備專業功力了。

肆、建議—繼續往前走

以下提出五點一般性建議及家長對孩童學英文之可行途徑。

一、 研究國小英語教學社會面之因素是無法忽略的，微觀及宏觀面向均應注意。如該小學所在處是城或鄉？該小學師資如何？行政支援如何？

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[3] 坊間版本雖宣稱根據溝通式教學（CLT, communicative language teaching），但未必具此編輯概念，CLT 重點不在重視聽說訓練，而在所學的外語目的是在真實有意義之溝通。小朋友可以看圖說 This is a dog 但若年齡長些，三四年級以上學 This is a dog，感覺有點笨笨，誰不知圖上是隻狗。I have a dog 就和自己生活有很大相關性。正文中的三句句型也不難，卻有篇章（discourse）概念。「真實溝通」主要就強調並非每一句都是完整單句，可用片語，乃至數句。

小朋友英文之先備知識如何？每週上課頻率如何？這是研究課堂內教學績效之前應評估的(micro-level research)。同時，教育行政單位宜給學校更大空間及彈性讓它發揮具地方特色之國小英語教學，及學子之成長。

二、　請外師教學有利有弊，而外師能否安頓下來是各校運氣問題。外師來到某國小牽涉很多跨文化衝擊，外師能否長期在台灣安頓下來更牽涉很多變數。我所知的國內大學外文系專任外師流動性不低；即令長期留下乃至配偶是臺灣人，也未必在文化上認同臺灣。他們整體表現和中師相當，不諳中文及中華文化總多少有些不便，行政能力也因處於中文化環境而顯得較弱。接待單位乃至外師之「娘家」需時時注意，花心血及時間讓外師順利融入本國文化。至於採用中外師協同教學，補習教育業界雖不常如本個案一次引進六十五名外師，但實務經驗上如某一坊間補習班就採折衷之道：中師一節、外師一節，搭配精確的互補教案，省錢又能吸引兩種老師長處。在務實性上值得吾人參考，下一學年A市五六年級打算採行此方法，並將外師部份省下之經費用於國小一年級。協同合作能否成功視合作溝通時間長短、包容度、及兩人行事風格而定。

三、　國小教師英語能力指標、教材選擇標準等之釐定都是在很理想狀況下規範出，有具體目標讓師資培育單位、課程教師去努力固然有其意義，但實際情況恐和預期落差很大。英語教學之「田野調查」或「民族誌研究」等質化方法是很重要的發現問題之途徑。畢竟我們對真實教室內之英語教學了解很有限，因為有系統之記錄嚴重缺乏。因此，現有文獻所呈現出來的實「問題」多於答案。

四、　「最佳」教材、「最佳」教法（如網路多媒體教學，或兒童文學、故事教學）等「制定的方法」（prescription），或研究單一教材或教法，對真實教學之研究意義很有限。除非我們知道學校有軟硬體設備、想法跟得上，英文老師準備充份，熟悉該教材教法且真正教學時「詮釋」得宜，學生英文程度合宜，才能說這組合起來之「菜單」會成功。何況在此個案中顯示：專家建議用甲版本，任教老師卻因教具多、便利教學而採乙版，外師卻因教科書之文句不真實而不滿意，未進入教學真正場域（on-site research）是無法發覺這些問題。

五、　陳教授認為「由於很多國小學童在補習班及其他機構學過英語，因此目前在台灣無法由參與國小英語課程者之英語能力評估國小英語習得規劃」（2000, p. 57）。國小英文能力指標並非無法評量，但變數相當多：對英語喜好、在補習班或家教時間及年限長短、授課品質、課程重點、學生用英文時機在在決定孩童英文能力，乃至維繫英文程度之時間長短。何況，學界強調的溝通式教學期望孩童學了英文後能在實際場合

運用[4]，如果「學習成果」純量化成一分數，考試類型又不是「溝通式」評量，未必能呈現學習之全貌。總之，這在學界是項極富挑戰議題，未來研究亦需多朝此方向進行。

針對家長孩童學英文比較務實做法，我的淺見如下表。

表四：家長因應小學孩童學英語方法

	學英語年齡及其它學科關係	教育投資	家庭環境	外師
有財力且願投資家長	可提早至一年級或學前，但勿犧牲孩子基本母語讀寫及計算能力	即令是最充沛之全美語環境，仍應留意孩子認知、情意及其他學科之發展狀況	家長仍應在自家營造一學英文、用英文之環境	可用外師教學，但務必了解外師之教學資格是否夠專業
財力及時間有限家長	五年級開始學不算晚；進小學後即應注意孩子之基本母語讀寫及計算能力	應選晚學但每週至少上兩次課程之補習班，或跟政府政策步調在學校學亦可	鼓勵孩子正確的「學習」任何學科觀念	如費用在可負擔範圍內，外師是文化及語言真實之代言人，有其優勢；但優良中師遠勝過不合格外師，不必勉強因迷信外師而多花冤枉錢

以上並非二分法，簡單的原則是量力而為。學英文是長久的事，教材越來越多元、也因競爭而降價。學習方法也很多，只要孩子有心，一定有途徑可自我加強，提早上有外師之補習班或課程並非唯一途徑。

伍、結語

本文以筆者第一人稱觀點，敘述台灣走向國際化努力過程中某一縣市為國小英語教育所做嘗試之歷程的一樁故事。在台灣我們有科學園區之父徐賢修，或電子科技之父李國鼎；那一天我們會有「（英）外語教育」之父（或之母）？教育是百年樹人，英語教學之專業知識累積也賴時間及學者努力。民族誌學家（如 Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999）認為教師的角色是去了解、教授、及孕育複雜又

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[4] 國人瘋狂參加各類英檢，到底坊間英檢有多少是「溝通式」評量？具有最悠久歷史及公信力的托福分數在 1980 年代被美國學界詬病無法顯示外籍研究生「能用英文」的能力，美國各大學也多要求學生接受校內自製之英文能力評量測驗。

獨特的學生，因此民族誌的研究對這項任務十分重要。學者到英語教學之實際發生場所去觀察、記錄對建立有體系之專門知識十分重要。問卷調查等量化方式資料取得雖易雖快，只能探窺表面一層現象，而在此「戰國及多變」之國小英文教學時代，問卷數據一陣子就失效了。過去業界及學者重視教材或教學技巧，然而二者需搭配起來，且視學生程度及每位老師詮釋而定，這需到課堂上真實的研究實地教學，是微觀研究（micro-level）。本個案影響A市分佈在山海及市中心之眾小學，學校文化、行政支持、教材、目標、中師、外師、乃至其他科任及導師感受都在在影響本案成敗，這是宏觀研究（macro-level）。英語教學學界兩種研究均應積極去進行，才能得到全貌，提昇學者專家之權威性，增進國人對學英文正確的看法。

我幫A市背書了嗎？答案是「是非皆對」，教育局的確希望我們幫他的政策背書，但他的做法大致公允審慎，尊重委員會決議。我的存心不在求名得利，一再利用每次機會省思實施面的細節並勇於建言，我們的決策是共議制，我很高興結交多位教育界朋友，所有參與者都認同「為A市國小英語教學盡心盡力」的理想。當然，因為這是一政治過程，大方針是和「專業規劃」無太大關係，全面用外師是前市長早已決定。新市長雖想煞車，也因民氣及教育部推波助瀾，而需繼續下去。在台灣目前之「民主」時代，似乎專家建議及政務官判斷都擺在一邊，民氣最無法擋。「全面用外師」本無對錯，但在教育政策及投資上，它成本過高卻因社會文化引導而被全然接受、決定執行了。

最後，目前為本案蓋棺論定，言之過早，而且端視由誰角度切入。如果是由一位偏遠山區之低收入家長看，他會感恩政府德政，提早讓他孩童接受「高」品質（及高價位）之英語教育。由英語教學學者專業理想角度看，恐很難苟同，因為外師經驗迴異，有部份教得真的不好。然而我們教育當局準備夠了嗎？具備充足數目的培育好的中師嗎？我的了解是有不少準老師已在教育部培育過程中途放棄、整體人數不敷全國所用，而且到偏遠地區教學之準老師的意願很低。本個案大概是台灣走向全面國小英語教學中途之不得已的妥協方案。我個人希望大家都能在花了大筆經費後得到應有之啟示，在未來規劃時可走得穩健些。

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作者簡介

劉顯親為清華大學外語系教授兼系主任，專長為電腦輔助語言學習及英語師資培育，已發表國際學術期刊論文多篇及專書《多媒體英語教材研發》、《省思與英語師資培育》、《e世代之英文教學》，並編有《語言研究與英語教學》。研究成果已連續獲得國科會十次研究獎勵。

附錄

12.3.2001 K 國小訪視紀錄
外師：F 教三年級, A 教六年級
協同中師：懷孕之 B 老師及認真之 D 老師，希望教育局能提供訪視他校協同教學之機會

總評：兩位表現優良，頗能為該校師生及家長接受，均適任。兩位「英語教學」表現自專業角度看，仍有改進空間。
教材：N/H 版本

訪談紀要

1. F 在某私人兒童美語補習班已教了 16 個月也曾在漢城教過六個月，來自加拿大多倫多；看起來比 A 世故，教得較穩較好。A 八月抵台，來自英國，充滿活力，上課「演」多於教學。
2. 兩人均肯定市政府做法，也認同現階段教英文首重「聽說」技能。
3. 教學上未用任何形式評量，估計對學生能否理解他們教學之掌握程度是七成左右。
4. 對學生程度差異問題，F 取中道，掌握住中等程度學生，再注意個別差異；A 則多讓學生參與。
5. 教科書版本問題他們認為不大，F 認為內容雷同，A 自做講義，常未按原設計內容教。教育局版的 apple for A，建議可多列一些字來顯示有 A 的字不只是 apple 而已。教材中使用故事很好。
6. 兩人認為和協同老師合作情況可接受，感覺上課前備課兩人協調程度有限、課室內協同老師未能發揮（A 曾請中師翻譯一次），但課後對「觀摩」等大型活動雙方密切合作。
7. 建議五六年級應能力分班以利教學，每週上一次頻率真的太低而很不易有效。這是兩位老師遇到最大的困難。

12.7.2001 L 國小訪視紀錄
外師：N 教五年級(班別 5-9), S 教六年級(6-9)；C 及 K 僅訪談，未有時間看到教學。
協同中師：K, L 老師

總評：兩位表現優良，頗能為該校師生及家長接受，均適任。協同部份比 K 國小的協同老師參與度高，但兩位「英語教學」自專業角度看，仍有改進空間（尤其是師生互動上）。

訪談紀要

1. S來自加拿大多倫多，有小學之教學經驗。本身是黑人，教學態度嚴謹，在課堂上嚴肅；看起來比N世故，台風比較穩，上課「演」多於教學。6-9是五六年級併班且有學過英語者。N先前無教學經驗，比較沉默。
2. 四人均肯定市政府做法，唯二年級上課每週四十分鐘真的太短了。教學上未用任何紙筆形式評量，估計對學生能否理解他們教學之掌握程度是七成左右。
3. 對學生程度差異問題，C取中道，掌握住中等程度學生，再注意個別差異；N則比較無想法因應。S幾乎全程站在台前，由中師到處走動。
4. 四人中僅一位認為協同老師(其定位是助教 assistant)無任何協助，N則認為校方及協同老師充份配合，他下課也會和學生一起打球。餘兩位認為合作情況可接受。感覺上課前雙方備課是協調過的。課室內協同老師做翻譯或逐一去了解個別學習情形一。課後對「觀摩」等大型活動雙方密切合作，花很多時間排演。

英語教學 *English Teaching & Learning*
27.1(July 2002)

A Case Documentation of English Instruction at the Elementary School Level: The Cross-Cultural Impact of Native Speaker Teachers

Abstract

This case report documents the process of planning and implementing English instruction from grade two to grade six in all elementary schools in a city in Taiwan, ROC. Native English-speaking teachers were recruited to co-teach with local teachers. This article documents the process from the perspective of a planning committee member and an English teacher educator. The case was directed and evaluated by the city Educational Bureau, who appointed a private language institute to run the entire program. Schools in this case used textbooks for 5th and 6th graders approved by the Ministry of Education but compiled their own teaching materials for 2nd to 4th graders. This ethnographic report includes information on the planning meetings, on-site teaching observations, interviews with all parties involved, and initial formative evaluation, and makes interpretations based on the author's participant observation. The report emphasizes the social impact of implementing English instruction, discusses the cross-cultural impact of native speakers on the school culture, parents, local teachers, students, and administrators, and ends with reflections and suggestions.

Key Words: elementary school English instruction, ethnographic report,
native speaking teachers, cross-cultural impact,
co-teaching

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A Collaborative Tale with Two Taiwanese EFL College Groups

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate how two groups of Taiwanese EFL college students engaged in debate as collaborative inquiry. The debate required participants not only to take critical stances but also to cooperate in solving problems of social concern. Sixteen Taiwanese college students, divided into four groups, participated in this research. This paper focuses on two of the four groups. Learning logs, semi-structured oral interviews and open-ended questionnaires were used to gather data. The topical unit was first used to categorize the data. The relevant units were then grouped together as a perspective, which reflected a common or a recurring pattern. Then comparative content analysis was finally used to interpret the data. Three perspectives influencing the success or failure of collaborative learning are presented in this paper. They include: linguistic competence, learning attitudes and gender differences. The results indicate that sharing, understanding and mutual support are crucial to a successful collaboration. Failure in collaboration involves faulty interdependent relationships, lack of altruism, and lack of learning motivation. Gender differences toward the concept of arguments and disagreements also play a role. Some pedagogical implications are suggested for ESL/EFL classroom use.

Key Words: collaboration, learning logs, semi-structured oral interview,
linguistic competence, gender differences

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, collaborative learning has become a valuable instructional practice, but what is meant by the term "collaborative learning" has not been carefully defined. The term applies to any pedagogical theory or method that involves using groups, from free group discussion to teaching close observation to adults, to highly structured systems for organizing students into teams which have their progress regularly charted in order to earn rewards for their achievements (Gaillet, 1994;

Goerss, 1996; Smit, 1994). Nunan (1992), using a more practical language, defines collaborative learning as a way to encourage students to work together to achieve common learning goals. In this sense, collaborative learning stands in contrast to competitive learning. Yet, collaboration and competition certainly can co-exist in the same classroom. For example, learners can work collaboratively with each other in a small group, and simultaneously work competitively against other groups.

A growing body of research has supported the use of collaboration to enhance the development of higher thinking, increase learning and promote prosocial behavior. Researchers such as, Johnson & Johnson (1989/1990), Kletzien & Baloche (1994), and Swafford (1995) provide in-depth reviews of research in which they conclude that collaborative learning tasks in small groups enhance students' academic achievement, self-esteem, relationships with students of different ethnic backgrounds, and positive attitudes toward school. Recent empirical work in literacy instruction has also supported theoretically motivated arguments in favor of collaborative learning. In two investigations into the efficacy of collaborative approaches to reading and writing instruction in third- and fourth-grade classrooms, Stevens, Madden, Alavin and Farnish (1987) found that students working in collaborative groups significantly outperformed those receiving traditional instruction on standardized measures of reading comprehension.

Vygotsky (1978), in a similar vein, asserted that social interaction is essential for the development of cognition, learning, and knowledge. He wrote that students must interact with a person who is more expert than themselves (be it an adult or a peer) in order to go beyond their current level of development, since this expert provides support or a scaffold so that learning may occur. That is, social interactions among students help them explore, clarify, and internalize concepts that are difficult to learn.

However, Adamson (1993) and Johnson (1995) have presented cases from Asian countries, Vietnam and Taiwan respectively, suggesting that appropriate norms of classroom communication and the roles of teachers and of students are based upon prior experiences. Both studies who were described used a socio-cultural point of view to characterize the students, as avoiding group interaction as a source of learning because they have greater respect for the "authoritative voice" of the teacher. In fact, throughout the Taiwanese educational system, there is little student-student interaction. Instead, competition in Taiwan is strongly reinforced by the educational establishment. Students are often pitted against each other to gain approval, attention, and grades in all subject areas, including English language learning (紀鳳鳴, 1996). Although competition might sometimes result in a positive desire to improve and do better than other people, more often it results in debilitating anxiety, inadequacy, guilt, hostility, withdrawal, fear of failure, and an unhealthy desire for external approval.

Thus, to promote collaborative learning, either inside or outside the classroom, it might be necessary to help learners confront--and possibly modify--their culturally defined attitudes toward collaboration and competition.

DEBATE AS COLLABORATIVE INQUIRY

Student-student interaction in second language classrooms can create opportunities for students to participate in less structured and more spontaneous language use, negotiate meaning, self-select when to participate, control the topic of discussion, and most importantly, draw on their own prior knowledge and interaction competencies to actively communicate with others (劉顯親, 1998). Moreover, since student-student interaction provides a more meaningful social environment for promoting language use than traditional teacher-directed instruction (Peterson & Eeds, 1990), student-student interaction in second language classrooms can increase students' opportunities to use language for second language acquisition. While debate is usually thought to be a highly competitive activity, the process of preparing for debate involves shared inquiry. Each group of learners is involved in debate by giving full consideration to the ideas of others, to weigh the merits of opposing arguments, and to modify their initial opinions of the evidence. Moreover, debate can also foster both the flexibility of mind to consider problems from many different angles and the discipline to analyze ideas critically (何慧玲, 1993; 紀鳳鳴, 2000). Thus debate functions as a collaborative inquiry in which students' linguistic ability is improved, their learning experiences are enhanced, and their attitudes toward learning motivation are improved, promoting for further learning.

Properly executed, collaborative practices may constitute an effective pedagogy; but to be certain, we need a great deal more evidence--evidence clearly rooted in classroom research and consistent appropriate theory, and tightly reasoned and documented by the most suitable methods. That is, we need to know more about exactly what produces effective learning in collaborative pedagogy. The collaborative inquiry project I describe here offers students an experience that allows them to transcend the limits of their personal knowledge while learning how to work in groups. Thus, of four groups, I chose two that reflected problems students typically encounter as they work in groups. One group involved students who successfully collaborated, whereas the other failed in the process of preparing the debate.

THE STUDY

Research Setting and Participants

The research setting for this paper was located at National Chung Cheng

University (NCCU). NCCU is a 9,000-student national university located in Ming-shiung, Chia-yi, Taiwan. In order to be accepted by this university, students are required to pass a competitive national joint entrance examination. Sixteen Taiwanese EFL college students, six males and ten females, participated in this research. They were divided into four groups and participants were given opportunities to select their group members. Allowing students to select their own groups gave them the freedom to choose groups in which they felt comfortable. One of the students was a Chinese major, another was a double major in Economics as well as in English, and the rest were all English majors. All the students were taking Freshman Oral Training as a required course with the author of this paper as their instructor when this study was conducted. All participants were informed of the research to be conducted before they formally registered for this course. In the current study, two out of four groups were selected on the basis of their different ways of managing group collaboration in the process of preparing for the debate task. Group A consisted of Lynn, Pamela, Annie, and Forest, whereas Group B included Lisa, Stacy, Julia, and Helen (all pseudonyms).

Data Collection Procedures

The sixteen Taiwanese EFL college students were divided into four groups and participants were given opportunities to select their group members. Three types of data were used for this paper: learning logs, semi-structured oral interviews and open-ended questionnaires.

Learning logs

At the beginning of the semester, the students were invited to write responses in a journal form to any reading materials, group work, and class discussion, with reference to the issues on debate topics. They were requested to write at least one journal entry per week. They were also informed that the purpose of the journal writing was communication and reflection and for that reason the journals would not be corrected. As for grading, I, as a teacher and researcher, informed the class that the minimum credit would be awarded to any student who submitted the journal on time, and maximum credit would be based on the quality and quantity of journal writing. I would read the journals and respond to the content of the students' writing as if responding to a letter from a friend. No correction or suggestions about the quality of the writing or even about the content or ideas were made.

Semi-structured oral interviews

Each participant was interviewed at least twice during the research and was allowed to select a suitable schedule at his/her convenience. The semi-structured oral interview, related to how students responded to their preparations for the debate, to peers, and to class discussion, was conducted with each participant. Usually the interview took place before or right after the debate was finished. In order to make participants feel comfortable with the interviews, a conversational and semi-structured oral interview was conducted. That is, a list of questions was prepared in advance, which served as a guideline in the interview process. The semi-structured interview questions are listed in Appendix A. In order to enable participants to verbalize sensitive and critical issues, the interviews were conducted by two research associates; each interview generally lasted 15-25 minutes and participants were free to use either English or Chinese in their responses. The interviews were audio tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim by two research associates (the interviewers).

Open-ended questionnaires

An open-ended questionnaire was conducted when the debate task was finished. This questionnaire served as an overall evaluation of the debate as an oral activity in the English class setting.

The three types of data were keyed into computer. In this paper, only the responses relevant to the three perspectives centering on the debate task as collaborative inquiry are included.

Data Analysis Procedures

As for data analysis, the topical unit was first used to categorize participants' learning logs. Each paragraph was coded and analyzed as a topical unit. Topical units that reflected a common or recurring pattern were organized as a theme. Next, the relevant units were moved and grouped together and then organized into a theme. As a result, three themes were generated, and they are leadership, collaboration, and problems and solutions. The theme of collaboration presented in the current study was further classified into three perspectives for detailed discussion of how Taiwanese EFL college students used the debate task as a collaborative activity. These perspectives include linguistic competence, learning attitudes, and gender differences.

As for the oral interview data and the open-ended questionnaires, data relevant to the theme was first underlined and coded and then moved to the relevant themes for data analysis and triangulation. The data referring to the debate task as collaborative learning was further analyzed, grouped and moved to the relevant perspectives for detailed discussion and interpretation.

Credibility

Two steps were taken to ensure the credibility of the data analysis and interpretation: member checking and peer debriefing. Member checking is a technique by which data is validated by participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Silverman, 1993). Participants were given the transcriptions of the three types of data. They were asked to check the transcriptions and make any changes in the margins when they recognized an inappropriate transcription. In addition, in order to obtain a picture as unbiased and as complete as possible, I discussed the data analysis with the participants of both groups. Any data which produced disagreement between us was dropped from the data pool. Thus, data interpretations and member checking in this sense sometimes occurred simultaneously.

Peer debriefing is a process in which the researcher collaboratively discusses data analysis with a peer or a group of peers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Silverman, 1993). In order to ensure the credibility of the analysis, the transcripts were first coded by this author, and then by two EFL teachers. I discussed the coding system with these two EFL teachers and provided four or five samples of each perspective. Any discrepancies were discussed and resolved. Any data that produced disagreement between us was dropped from the data pool. After long conversations and negotiations, the inter-coding agreements eventually reached were 81% and 84% between this author and the two EFL instructors, with a rate of 83% between the two EFL instructors themselves.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Three perspectives emerged from the data analysis on collaborative learning: linguistic competence, learning attitudes, and gender differences. The discussion of the three perspectives should not be construed as representing a series of necessarily separate entities. The separation of these perspectives in the following discussion is, then, reflective more of my rhetorical needs than of the natural processes participants go through.

Linguistic Competence

The participants' linguistic competence surfaced as an interesting phenomenon, and as a result became a strong influence on group collaboration in the process of preparing for the debate task. The participants' linguistic competence played a crucial role in the debate, since participants were required to verbalize their thoughts in English. Of the participants, Lisa in Group B was one of the few students who was able to fluently express her opinions in English. Her linguistic competence in English was proficient enough to allow her to fully verbalize critical thoughts, whereas her peers were usually incapable of doing so. Unfortunately, possibly due to the wide variation of linguistic competence within that group, learning tension and anxiety quickly developed and students even became hostile to one another. They claimed errors had been committed by group members, blamed each other for problems, and swore at each other. As a result, some other more serious problems gradually came into existence. The following examples illustrate how the members in Group B responded to their linguistic differences as an issue in the process of collaboration.

In her learning logs, Lisa commented:

> I don't think I can learn anything from my peers. I can't tolerate them any more and their ideas are so innocent. My peers always just listened to me without any responses. All what I did in my group was 'giving' but took nothing back from them [her group members].

Stacy reinforced this evaluation:

> Well, Lisa's English is so much better than ours and her ways of thinking are keen and sharp. Besides, she was always well-prepared. Lisa not only well-organized what she read but also copied her notes for us. However, some of us did not appreciate what she has done for us. …

However, Julia in an oral interview complained that

> It is a pressure to work with Lisa. She expected us to work as much as she did but it's impossible. I had a part-time job.

Helen, too, felt the gap between her own linguistic competence and Lisa's:

> Lisa's English is really excellent. She is the best one in our class. She uses English all the time in class with the professors. So, she did not have to spend much time on thinking about what to say and how to express her ideas in English; for me, I can't do this. My English is poor, especially my oral speaking ability. I have to spend time on thinking and thinking. Although my English is not as good as Lisa's, but I am learning.

Later, on her learning logs, Stacy commented:

> I think our English ability was important for the first two weeks when we just started preparing our debate topic. Afterwards, Helen and I tried my best to read, write and think. I think we have been making progress.

From these examples, it is obvious that Lisa was not welcome by her group members due to her proficient linguistic competence. In fact, some members in Group B were irritated by what they saw as Lisa's pride and arrogance, not by her proficiency in English. Helen and Stacy both believed that linguistic competence was the major problem for the first two weeks, since Lisa was able to verbalize her thoughts so quickly and fluently in English. Afterwards, however, they both said that the more materials they read, the better they were able to express their opinions in English. In fact, Lisa herself, later on, also found her linguistic proficiency had created group tension and conflicts, so she attempted to ease group tension by changing her own attitudes but these attempts were in vain since other more serious problems has begun to surface that did serious damage to the whole group. Those problems emerged from a personality conflict between Lisa and Julia.

Lisa referred to it in her questionnaire:

> I appreciate Stacy for her suggestions. She suggested that
> I should ask more questions instead of providing my opinions
> directly. But, I was always annoyed by Julia's learning attitudes.

Helen, too, noted the rift in her questionnaire:

> I think our group has been too much annoyed by the conflicts between Julia and Lisa. At the beginning, we worried about our linguistic competence which is not good enough to express our thoughts and later we were bothered by Julia's attitudes. I wish we could reduce our emotional responses to each other and focus more on our group discussion.

Unlike Group B, in Group A, Forest, who was viewed as a role model by his peers, was influential in shaping the nature of collaboration in his group, yet even he confessed having to overcome his linguistic deficiency and barriers in English with assistance from his peers.

He confessed with characteristic modesty in his questionnaire:

> My English is so poor that I like to discuss with my group members.
> They really helped me better understand the reading materials.
> Also, the group discussion helped me remember the materials better
> and think more critically.

In her questionnaire, Pamela also commented:

> I don't see whose English in our group is really outstanding. Probably that's why we all had to collaborate each other. In fact, I feel I relied on my group discussion a lot. Forest even requested us to discuss in English when we met

> for group discussion. We all agreed. With this informal practice, my oral ability has been improved a lot. At least, I am not that afraid to speak in English.

Again in his oral interview, Forest said:

> I don't think I am that good. I simply felt that the resources that I got could be used by as many people as possible. Even if my classmates got my materials, they still had to spend time reading and "digesting" them. No matter how excellent the materials that I got, we had to spend time reading, organizing, analyzing, synthesizing, and even thinking about them; otherwise, the materials would be just as useless as piles of trashes. I should have appreciated my group members, too. When they finished reading the materials, they would come over to discuss with me, and sometimes I found
> I misread or misunderstood the materials. I did learn a lot from my group members, too.

Obviously, Forest also viewed discussion as an opportunity to clarify his own understanding of the reading materials. A willingness to respect each other's perspectives undoubtedly established an environment safe for discussing provocative materials. Other students claimed that accepting multiple perspectives was crucial in the process of preparing for the debate.

For both Lisa in Group B and Forest in Group A, the paradox of collaboration is that through the process of interacting with others, individuals rediscover their selves. A comment by a student in Swafford's study (1995) comes to mind, "Collaboration, that participant suggested, involves the loss of individualism, but it results in the gain of the individual. The paradox of collaboration also contains its promise" (p. 629). For this student, collaboration allows for a "fusion of horizons" that results in an enlargement of one's perspective, what we call a more "complicated understanding." If collaboration is to provide a way for students to negotiate multiple (and often contradictory) positions, it must involve two recursive moves: a dialectical encounter with an "other" (a person or idea) and a reflexive engagement with the self.

Learning Attitudes

Collaboration is a valuable part of classroom learning, since collaborative inquiry suggests one way to mend the opposition between self and other because it involves both a public encounter with an "other" and a reflexive encounter with the "self." As the group members establish their equilibrium, they will not return to their original intellectual positions, individually or collectively. Such situations can be obviously seen among the members of Group A.

In her learning logs, Lynn, a member of Group A, noted:

> I appreciated Forest's generous sharing. He not only shared the resources he got from the library but also taught me how to use the library. Sometimes, I felt guilty so as not to use his materials, but he always said 'No problem! Go ahead and use them.'

Later, she added:

> Forest is really nice. One thing I admired him most was that he never complained about how much he had done for our group. He was the only person in our group who got everything prepared and organized before our group met together. He even taught us how to make clear summary and write down the outline on the card so that our group was able to perform excellently on the debate contest.

This generosity became a characteristic of their discussion behavior, too. Another member, Annie, remembered that:

> My group cooperated very well, I think. Once we had any problem or opinion about the topic or other peer's idea, we often talked about it together. Almost, every one of us did best to make our positions in the debate stronger.

The member of Group A succeeded in locating a common ground within the group itself so that their differences did not appear as overwhelming later. They were able to initially establish some basis for solidarity through shared purposes and experiences. In fact, the key to establishing group solidarity as well as moving the group forward was their mutual communication; continual talk kept the whole group immersed in creating a foundation for openness, trust and receptivity. As trust was built, the deferential politeness strategies that some students may depend on became less important, and that, in turn, enabled freer interactions to take place. Moreover, the members in Group A viewed shared inquiry as an art that fostered both the flexibility of mind to consider problems from many different angles and the discipline to analyze ideas critically. Collaboration promoted their learning attitudes, enhanced their learning experiences, and motivated them to inquire further.

For Group B, on the other hand, collaboration became much harder since differences created disruption and curtailed rather than invited group communication.

Stacy, from Group B, lamented that:

> Some of my group members didn't care about the debate and she was always late for the group discussion so that it was very difficult for us to cooperate successfully. I don't know how to help my group.

Helen specified who this uncooperative member was:

> Julia was working as a part timer in the cafeteria so she wasn't able to make time for any preparation. I was sometimes influenced by her poor attitudes. She was late for our group discussion all the time and sometimes she even did not show up. Our energy has spent waiting for her to show up.

Lisa saw the problem as broader than just Julia's tardiness:

> I couldn't cooperate with my group members very well. I felt I was wasting time when I discussed with them. When we met, some of my group members didn't prepare. We always spent a lot of time on deciding what we were supposed to discuss. By the time when we were about to discuss, we all ran out of time. Much worse, some of them simply came over to gain something from the group members. I was so upset.

The problem polarized group membership, creating pairs of students against each other. Stacy commented that:

> Our group attitudes toward debate sometimes really made me feel upset. Some group member was absent due to personal events. Her attitudes had become bad influence on us. Finally, like Lisa, I felt so frustrated and disappointed.

The participants in Group B became frustrated and upset with their group work because they did not know how to persuade their under achieving participant Julia to get involved and also because they did not know how to draw that person into group membership. As a result, the collaborative learning in Group B was not at all productive. Likewise, they also did not know how to persuade participant Lisa to listen to others. Neither did most participants in Group B know how to deal with people who consistently a excuses for not doing their share of the work, nor did they know how to deal with those who overparticipated. In sum, group agreement does not necessarily signal consensus; rather, agreement can be used as a critical instrument to open gaps in conversation through which differences may emerge. Group B was never able to achieve agreement during the process of collaboration. Group A, on the other hand, fostered a sense of positive interdependence and mutual support.

Gender Differences

Descriptions of gender differences in talk characterize females' discussions with each other as more interactive, more concerned about consensus, more willing to consider others' opinions, more prone to question, and more likely to consult authority to settle disagreements. Furthermore, research indicates that girls do not play an active role in mixed groups, therefore the educational benefits derived from mixed groups tend to go to boys. Some researchers such as Tannen (1990; 1996) believe that the tendency for boys to achieve more than girls may be a result of such increased opportunities to engage in academic activities.

Group B seemed to violate such previous research finding in which female became more active when placed in same-sex groups and engaged more often in a wide range of verbal interactions. Collaborative learning, for Group B, seems to have created a dilemma. On the one hand, the group unleashed irreconcilable differences in assumptions, values, and points of view; on the other hand, the emphasis on achieving consensus resulted in unnecessary peer pressure to conform to what the group decides. Of course, the goal is a proper balance between individual differences and group consensus, but given the tension inherent in the collaborative method, it seems excessive based on Group B's behavior to claim that it is intrinsically better than other pedagogical techniques in achieving a change in values.

Lisa, from Group B, wrote:

> My group members were very polite, so much polite and careful that I strongly feel that they would not hurt anybody. In order to maintain our friendship, we were afraid to be against each other, not to mention to bring up any critical opinions.

Later, she noted:

> I felt so frustrated that I hardly brought up any of my disagreements in the process of group discussion.. I didn't think we were preparing for how to debate. All what we did in the discussion was to talk politely.

Stacy, noticed the same behavior:

> I think our group did not cooperate very well, not only because we were not familiar with each other, but also because we dared not express our opinions freely. I attended Lynn's group (Group A) discussion once.
> I was amazed with the ways how they talked to each other open-mindedly and freely. For girls, we have to establish our personal relationships before we start our academic talks. No wonder Lisa complained all the time about

> our group collaboration. My feelings were very similar to hers but I could do nothing. This is what girls usually do in group discussion.

Forest saw the same problem in his group:

> I felt girls are more sensitive to the personal relationships. It is more difficult for them than for me as a boy to participate in the debate activity. At the beginning, our group members were so nice to each other. I was impatient and told them that we should have focused on our discussion and how to persuade our opponents; that is, we want to win the debate contest.

Pamela, a member of Forest's group, found that the group could get beyond politeness without loss of respect for each other:

> I hated debate at the beginning since I did not know how to express my disagreement to my female peers. From my past experience, I personally do not like to chat with girls because they are so obsessed with "sweet words and nice attitudes." These feelings made me feel uneasy to talk with them. I have a lot of male friends and enjoy talking with them. Gradually, I felt my peers only cared about my opinions. Even we had arguments in my group, we still felt all right with each other. The experience with my female peers this time was really different from my previous ones.

Annie confirmed that estimation:

> It's painful for us to get along together in the beginning. I did not like to argue with my group members since they were all my classmates. I am afraid they might be hurt by my statements. But, little by little, I felt all right and my group members did not seem to take my disagreements personally. I really enjoyed the group discussion. In the end, we have become good friends.

Clearly, some female participants in both Group A and Group B were trapped into the so-called " good girl's complex", in which a harmonious social relationship is the primary concern, so they tried their best to mitigate their group conflicts/ disagreements by compromise and evasion. Obviously, to many female participants, group disagreement is not viewed as a path to clearer communication or a means by which to negotiate ideas, or even as a position to take; rather, it is seen as opposite to the female virtue of maintaining a harmonious atmosphere. As a result, girls are judged and judge themselves to be virtuous when they are silent or refuse to take a stand on an issue.

Fortunately, some girls, especially those in Group A, found that with group support and encouragement they could view group work as a way to converse and negotiate, a means by which they could seek and give confirmation, and even to reach consensus. Group A saw their collaboration not as a matter of individual performance but as a "partnership in performance." Group B, however, in order to maintain their friendship, avoided conversation.

CONCLUSION

Results from the current study indicate that sharing, understanding and mutual support are crucial to successful collaboration, whereas failure in collaboration like group B involves faulty interdependent relationships, personality conflicts, lack of altruism, and even lack of confidence and of motivation. When participants in this study were highly involved in the cooperative experiences, dialogue and negotiation in collaboration tended to favor Group A, who was already united by virtue of shared beliefs. In addition, the results have also demonstrated that participants' linguistic competence and gender differences are important factors in the process of collaborative inquiry. Due to the wide variation in linguistic competence within Group B, learning tension and anxiety quickly developed, and in turn participants in Group B even became hostile to one another. Unlike Group B, the participants in Group A were willing to overcome their linguistic deficiency and barriers in English with assistance from their peers; as a result, the spirit of collaboration was naturally emerged. As for the gender issues, some male and female participants in both groups have different views on arguments and disagreements; thus, they preferred to remain silent or failed to give opinions in the process of collaborative learning. In a word, successful collaboration is definitely hard to foster because it relies on the underlying assumptions of similarities in linguistic competence and learning attitudes and on the beliefs of gender equity between participants that may not actually exist.

IMPLICATIONS

This investigation has implications both for further research and for pedagogical practice. For further research, knowledge and evidence about how students in ESL/EFL classes work collaboratively is still in its infancy; thus, researchers should explore when and how learners are able to collaborate productively. Whether collaborative learning will lead to a new order of social relations, whether it more adequately mirrors language learning as a social activity, whether it improves learning more than other techniques--all of this is open to question. Moreover, as with all qualitative research, the discussion delineated in this paper must be further researched with larger numbers and different levels of ESL/EFL students. However, some pedagogical implications can be deduced even in this early stage.

First, group processing needs to include a metacognitive problem-solving activity, time for group members to reflect on how well they are working together and what they need to do to make their group work more effectively. Thus, ESL/EFL teachers should provide adequate time for students to reflect upon their group learning process. Taking time to reflect upon their group collaborative learning enables learners not only to examine but also acquire beliefs, values, and attitudes about self, others and tasks (Qualley & Chiseri-Strater, 1994). For some groups, it may be necessary to provide alternative processing possibilities. Allowing a disfunctional group to observe a successful group, followed by an opportunity to discuss what they saw may be important in helping them to know other ways to function.

Second, collaboration is not always second nature to language learners, especially in ESL/EFL settings. Many ESL/EFL students may not be educated to work in cooperative groups and may be unaware of the benefits of collaborative learning since their native cultures sometimes fail to provide extended experience for students to work together on common projects or goals. Therefore, it is necessary for ESL/EFL teachers to know and understand differences in the cultural values of students concerning collaboration.

Lastly, ESL/EFL teachers need to help learners see how to use cooperation rather than competition in the language classroom. They must assist learners in becoming comfortable with others because effective communication depends on mutual collaboration. The more ESL/EFL students work together, the greater their opportunities for interaction in English in the classroom setting.

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Appendix

Semi-structured oral interview questions

1. Who contributed most/least to your group work? Explain in details.
2. From whom did you learn most/least in your group?
3. Do you think your group collaborated very well?
4. What are your suggestions to improve your group work?
5. Are you willing to work with your members again? Why/why not?

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共助學習的成與敗[1]：兩個小組的故事

摘要

本文是探討兩組大學生如何應用辯論學習以達共助學習的目的，並探討其成功與失敗的因素。參與本研者為中正大外文系的大一學生。資料收集方式有學習日誌，半結構式訪談法及問卷調查法等三種，而資料分析則採話題與主題分析法及內容比較分析法。資料結果共分三個討論焦點：語言智能、學習態度及性別差異等三方面。本研究結果顯示共助學習成功之道乃因組員之間願意共同分享資料來源與知識習得並且不分性別與語言智能的高低，互相支持與鼓勵。至於失敗則歸因於組員之間語言智能的差異及錯誤的信賴模式；此外，組員被動的學習態度與男女同學對辯論學習過程中「爭議」持有不同的觀念等因素以致共助學習無法圓滿達成。最後並依據研究結果，提出幾項有關教學上的建議，以供英文教師課室內使用共助教學時參考用。

關鍵字: 共助學習　學習日誌　半結構式訪談法　語言智能
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A Developmental Study on Phonological Awareness and Spelling in Taiwanese EFL Children

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between phonological awareness and the early acquisition of spelling in Taiwanese EFL children as a function of years of English learning. Fourteen Taiwanese EFL children were selected from an elementary school in Taipei County. The subjects were divided into two groups, with 2 and 4 years of English learning respectively. Both groups were given 7 phonological awareness tasks and 2 spelling tasks. Consistent with some previous studies, the results of the study provide empirical evidence that phonological awareness and spelling improve with years of English learning. Moreover, the results indicate that phonemic awareness, rather than other levels of phonological awareness, is most strongly correlated with spelling abilities. The relationship between phonemic awareness and spelling skill highlights the significance of fostering the ability of phonological awareness in EFL learners.

Key words: phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, spelling, EFL learners

INTRODUCTION

The English language is an alphabetic language, and relies heavily on alphabetic principles involving understanding the naming and sounds of letters, and combining sounds into words (Zgonc, 2000). Since an alphabetic language depends upon letter-sound correspondence for decoding of meaning, the knowledge of direct correspondences between phonemes and graphemes called grapheme-phoneme correspondence (GPC) rules, becomes indispensable. Thus, when learning English, children need to understand alphabetic principles and develop phonological awareness for better language development. Phonological awareness fosters learning of GPC rules (Huang & Hanley, 1994); in other words, the ability to be sensitive to sounds or to blend, segment or manipulate sounds in other ways is strongly related to the control of alphabetic principles and with spelling ability as well.

During the past two decades; some researchers have found that there are positive relationships between phonological awareness and proficient spelling (e.g., Bryant, Maclean, Bradley, & Crossland, 1990; Huang & Hanley, 1994; O'Connor, 1994; Su, 2001; Tunmer & Nesdale, 1985). Although there is empirical evidence, as shown in some studies, that phonological skills are crucial in learning to spell, the components of phonological skills vary from study to study, and need to be further clarified. Generally speaking, phonological awareness can be divided into several levels including the awareness of syllables, and awareness of phonemes. (e.g., Bentin, 1992; Chard & Dickson, 1999; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991). Some studies suggest that awareness of phonemes, instead of the sensitivity to onset-rime awareness, predicts early reading and spelling (e.g., Nation & Hulme, 1997). On the other hand, some other studies reveal that onset-rime awareness, as well as phonemic awareness, facilitates the process of learning to spell (Bradley, 1992).

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between phonological awareness and the early acquisition of spelling in Taiwanese EFL children. The fourteen elementary school students who participated in the study were divided into two groups based on the number of years they had studied English. They were given a variety of phonological awareness and spelling measures, including:

(1) Phonological Awareness Tasks:

(a) Three phoneme awareness tasks (phoneme counting task, phoneme deletion task, and phoneme segmentation task)

(b) Two syllable awareness tasks (syllable counting task and syllable deletion task)

(c) Two onset-rime awareness tasks (rhyming task and onset-rime deletion task)

(2) Two spelling tasks (real-word spelling task and pseudoword spelling task):

We aimed to investigate the relationship between children's performance on different phonological awareness tasks and spelling skills. The research questions addressed in this study were:

(1) How do Taiwanese young EFL children develop their abilities in phonological awareness and spelling as a function of years of English learning?

(2) What is the relationship between phonological awareness and spelling skills for Taiwanese young elementary school EFL learners? Which components of phonological skills are mostly correlated with spelling skills?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many studies have shown that there is relationship between phonological awareness and early development of spelling skills when learning an alphabetic writing system. In this section, we'll first briefly define phonological awareness and spelling. Some major findings concerning the relationship between phonological awareness and spelling will then be reviewed.

Phonological Awarenss

Although many studies have shown that phonological awareness plays a critical role in spelling development, the definition of phonological awareness varies from researcher to researcher.

According to Rohl, phonological awareness is a type of metalinguistic awareness, which involves the ability to recognize the sound units of language and to manipulate them (as cited in Huang & Hanley, 1994). Similar to Rohl's definition, Chard and Dickson (1999) have stated that phonological awareness includes the understanding of dividing oral language into smaller units and the oral manipulation of sounds. In other words, spoken language can be broken down into sentences, and sentences into words and words into syllables, onset/rimes, and individual phonemes. Moreover, phonological awareness is also used to refer to the ability to manipulate sounds, including deleting, adding, or substituting syllables or sounds.

Bentin has asserted that phonological awareness consists of two forms: one is "phonemic awareness", the ability to isolate and manipulate segments while the other is "early phonological awareness", the detection of words on the basis of subsyllabic segments (as cited in Huang & Hanley, 1994). Treiman and Zukowski (1991), on the other hand, have claimed that phonological awareness generally involves three levels: (1) awareness of syllables, (2) awareness of onsets and rhymes, and (3) awareness of phonemes. The largest unit is the syllable whereas the smallest one is the phoneme. At an intermediate level, syllables are divided into onset and rime units. Thus, when assessing phonological awareness, varied tasks can be used for measurement. For example, syllable counting or syllable deleting can be used to measure one's syllable awareness, and a phoneme segmentation or phoneme blending task can be used to assess one's phoneme awareness.

In sum, phonological awareness is not a homogeneous, but a heterogeneous set of skills. Many researchers have proposed that the components of phonological awareness are acquired hierarchically rather than emerge as a whole. In Treiman's research, it has been suggested that the ability to segment syllables is acquired first, followed by the awareness of onsets, and finally awareness of phonemes (as cited in Wolf & Vellutino, 1993). Treiman and Zukowski (1991) have even indicated that at the level of developing awareness of phonemes, children need to have orthographic knowledge of the alphabetic writing system.

Chard and Dickson (1999) have further pointed out that the different skills of phonological awareness lie on a continuum of complexity. Rhyming songs and sentence segmentation demonstrating the awareness of dividing speech into single words are regarded as less complex activities at one end of the continuum. On the other hand, activities related to phonemic awareness (such as phoneme blending or phoneme segmenting), the most sophisticated level of phonological awareness, are at the later developmental stage of the continuum. At the center of the continuum are activities related to syllable awareness (such as segmenting or blending words into syllables), followed by the activities of onset-rime blending and segmenting representing the awareness of onset and rime.

Creative Spelling

The development of children's spelling has attracted attention from a number of researchers. Read (1986) has indicated that some children start spelling in their own way before receiving formal instruction in school. Their spelling efforts are mostly creative; thus, many spelling patterns are unacceptable and bizarre to parents and teachers, who do not realize that such spellings are developmental and have a phonetic basis. Some studies have been conducted to investigate the common patterns of children's spelling errors and the cause of the errors in English spelling.

The work of Arthur Gates and his student James Mendenhall, in which children's spelling errors were analyzed, is the most prominent among the studies (as cited in Read, 1986). Gates analyzed 3,876 words spelled by New York City elementary school pupils. The results revealed that for words containing /ɛ/, 55 percent of children in the third grade or below most frequently misspelled with A; for words containing /ɪ/, 21 percent of children in the third grade or below most frequently misspelled with E. As to the words with preconsonantal nasals, 12 percent of children in the third grade or below most frequently omitted the nasals without spelling them out. Mendenhall's monograph also discussed some frequent spelling errors (as cited in Read, 1986). For example, in general, the most difficult spot of a word is either in the middle or immediately to the right of the middle rather than at the beginning; and the letters occurring most frequently are often misspelled. Moreover, spelling difficulty is associated with particular letters (either in isolation or in combination) rather than with general aspects of words, such as length or the number of syllables.

Treiman has also focused on studying children's spelling of stops after initial /s/ such as *spy, sty, and sky* (as cited in Read, 1986). Although these stops are actually spelled as the voiceless /p/, /t/, and /k/, they are pronounced like the voiced counterparts /b/, /d/, and /g/. Hence, Treiman observed that the children who are at lower reading levels, and have not mastered standard spelling yet, spell the clusters *sp-, st-, and sk-* as *sb-, sd-, and sg-*.

The question of why some children have difficulty with English spelling has drawn extensive attention from researchers. One hypothesis is that in learning to spell, children should know how to map print with sound and apply grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules (Su, 2001). Children's spelling errors of English words are largely due to the insufficient grasp of the grapheme-phoneme rules of English. According to Coltheart (1978), the use of a GPC system involves three stages: the first is the graphemic parsing stage, in which the reader segments the letter string into its functional spelling units (graphemes). For instance, the reader needs to parse *night* into the units *n, igh, t*. The second is the phoneme assigning stage, which involves retrieval of the appropriate set of single phonemes [n], [ay], [t]. In the third, or the blending stage, the learner needs to blend the retrieved phoneme together into a coherent pronunciation, [nayt] (Su, 2001, p.181). It is claimed that children's failure to apply grapheme-phoneme rules causes difficulties in spelling acquisition (see Dehn, 1986; Treiman, 1991).

Review of the Studies on the Relationship Between Phonological Awareness & Spelling

Since phonological awareness may be a heterogeneous set of skills, it remains controversial as to which levels of phonological awareness are crucial in the relation with early reading and spelling. According to a study done by Goswami and Bryant (1992), the onset-rime awareness preceding phonemic awareness is crucial in the very early reading while phonemic awareness is both the result and facilitator of reading acquisition. Moreover, in a study conducted by Oxford, it was found that onset-rime sensitivity is the precursor of phoneme detection, which plays a critical role in reading acquisition (Bradley, 1992). The study also has revealed that rhyming awareness can make a contribution to reading development probably in terms of categorizing the words with common spelling patterns.

On the contrary, other studies have shown that it is phonemic awareness, not onset-rime sensitivity that is important in predicting early reading and spelling. For example, the results of one study indicated that rhyme and syllable factors do contribute to early reading and spelling, but the contribution is tiny when compared to the phoneme factor (Nation & Hulme, 1997). Phonemic segmentation skills are the prerequisite of reading and spelling development. Also, in Nation and Hulme's study (1997), it was shown that onset-rime segmentation failed to correlate with spelling or reading development while phonemic segmentation was correlated with reading and spelling.

METHOD

Subjects

Fourteen Taiwanese EFL children were selected from an elementary school in Taipei County. The subjects were divided into two groups of seven based on the number of years they had studied English. One group had studied English for two years, the other for four years. Both English learning experiences in cram schools and primary school were taken into consideration.

Materials and Procedures

In the study, the participants' phonological awareness and spelling abilities were measured according to various tasks.

Phonological awareness tasks

Seven phonological awareness tasks were administered on an individual basis. Three of the tasks measured phonemic awareness involving counting, segmentation, and deletion tasks; two measured syllable awareness including counting and deletion tasks while the other two measured onset-rime awareness including rhyming and deletion tasks. The stimuli of the tasks listed in Appendix A are drawn from 2000 frequently-used words as suggested in the Nine-Year Integrated Curriculum. All the test items were recorded by an English native speaker experienced in children's English teaching and tape-recording. During the testing process, children were praised for a correct response. Corrective feedback was given for incorrect responses upon the completion of each task. Each of the tasks are described in detail below:

Phoneme counting task. The procedure of the phoneme counting task used in the present study was adapted from the method employed by Liberman, Shankweiler, Fisher, and Carter (1974) and Yopp (1988) to assess subjects' ability in counting the number of phonemes. Twenty-one real words, 7 with one, 7 with two and 7 with three phonemes, were randomly arranged in the test.

Each subject was first asked to listen to each item and indicate the number of sounds by clapping the hands. Several practice trials were provided as the training before the test such as one clap for /s/, two claps for /sa/, and three claps for /sap/. More practice trials were provided as in the following: /g/, /gu/, good; and /p/, /pi/, pig. Feedback was provided after each trial. The test took approximately 5 minutes to administer.

Phoneme deletion task. Adapted from Bruce's study (1964), the phoneme deletion task in the study was designed to measure the child's ability in deleting one phoneme from different positions in words, which is regarded as a more difficult assessment than the segmenting one. Twenty-one words were used in the task. The position of the target phoneme designed for deleting was equally and randomly distributed at the beginning, middle, and end of the words used in the test. Due to a higher degree of difficulty of the test, it required approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Six practice trials were given to the subjects before the formal test. The following words were used as the sample items in the study: *house*, *bat* (beginning *h* and *b* removed, respectively), *ant* and *moon* (ending *t* and *n* removed), *drink* (middle *r* removed), and *left* (middle *f* removed). Subjects were asked to take away a certain sound of a word they've heard and produce the remaining parts of the stimulus item. The entire procedure was tape-recorded and errors were noted.

Syllable counting task. The syllable counting task was designed to measure the child's awareness of the number of syllables in an utterance. Similar to the format of the phoneme counting task, the syllable counting task contained twenty-one real words with equal numbers of one, two, and three syllable items.

The child was asked to listen to an item and point out the number of syllables by clapping the hands. Three practice trials indicating respectively one, two, and three syllables were given. They were one clap for *bird*, two claps for *bookcase*, and three claps for *Saturday*. The test required about 5 minutes to administer.

Syllable deletion task. The syllable deletion task was designed to measure the child's ability in deleting the target syllable of an utterance. Twenty-one two- or three-syllable words were used. Moreover, they were equally divided between the items with the first, second or the third syllable for deletion.

The demonstration items were *Monday* (first syllable removed), *weekend* (second syllable removed), and *uniform* (third syllable removed). The child first listened to the word item, then took away the target syllable and articulated the remaining part of the item. All the responses were tape-recorded and errors were written down. The test took approximately 15 minutes.

Rhyming Task. The rhyming task was developed from the work of Calfee, Chapman, and Venezky (1972) and Yopp (1988). Twenty word pairs were used in the study. The person administering the test first defined the concept of rhyming words sharing the same sound at the end. Some examples of rhyming words were given, such as night/light and where/there. Also, counterexamples were provided, such as nose/mouth and paper/pencil. The child was asked to indicate whether or not the word pairs were rhymes by responding "yes" or "no". The rhyming task took approximately 5 minutes to complete.

Onset-rime deletion task. In the onset-rime deletion task, 20 items were used. Firstly, the person administering the test defined the concept of onset and rime and provided examples. For instance, in the word *cup*, *c* is treated as onset whereas *up* is rime; or *pl* in plant is onset and *ant* is rime. Some practice trials were given before the test such as *wing*, *grass*, and *strike*. The child was directed to delete the onset or rime and the responses in the formal test were tape-recorded. The onset-rime deletion task required 15 minutes to complete.

Spelling tasks

Two spelling tasks were administered in the study: real-word spelling and pseudoword spelling tasks. The subjects were asked to respond in writing instead of speaking. The materials used in the spelling tasks are presented in Appendix B.

Real-word spelling task. Similar to the sentence-reading task, the items in the real-word spelling task were divided into two levels drawn from McCarthy and O'Dell's elementary vocabulary in use (1999) and Redman's pre-intermediate/intermediate English vocabulary in use (2000). All the word items also appeared in the list of 2000 frequently-used words from the Nine-Year Integrated Curriculum.

All the test items were recorded by an English native speaker and each item was recorded three times. During the administration, children who didn't produce a written response to a word were told to skip it. Upon the completion of the task, the children were given another opportunity to spell the skipped words. Two levels of the real-word spelling task were administered on different days with approximately 20 minutes required for each task.

Pseudoword spelling task. This task was adapted from Stage and Wagner's spelling task (1992). The spelling stimuli of the task included 25 pronounceable pseudowords modified from the 2000 frequently-used English vocabulary words listed in the Nine-Year Integrated Curriculum. These 25 pseudowords contained 39 phonemes involving three voiced stops (/d/, /b/, /g/), three voiceless stops (/k/, /p/, /t/), three voiced fricatives (/z/, /v/, /ð/), five voiceless fricatives (/s/, /f/, /h/, /θ/, /ʃ/), two affricates (/tʃ/, /dʒ/), three nasals (/m/, /n/, /ŋ/), five front vowels (/i/, /ɪ/, /e/, /ɛ/, /æ/), four medial vowels (/ɜ/, /ɚ/, /ə/, /ʌ/), five back vowels (/u/, /ʊ/, /o/, /ɔ/, /a/), three diphthongs (/aɪ/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/), two liquids (/l/, /r/), and two glides (/y/, /w/). For instance, the pseudoword /bep/ modified from the real word "bake" containing a voiced stop /b/, a front vowel /e/, and a voiceless stop /p/; or the pseudoword /bray / modified from the real word "bright" containing a voiced stop /b/, a liquid /r/, a diphthong /aɪ/, and a voiceless fricative /θ/.

All the pseudowords were tape-recorded by an English native speaker and each word was produced three times.

Coding

Phonological awareness tasks

The score of each task depended on the total number of correct responses. Each correct response received 1 point while each incorrect one received 0 points. The maximum score for each task on the phoneme awareness tasks and syllable awareness tasks was 21 whereas the maximum score for each task on the onset-rime awareness tasks was 20.

Spelling tasks

In analyzing the spelling words of the real-word spelling task, a scale of the scores from 0 to 6 was calculated for each item based on Ball and Blachman (1991, p.58):

0 points: a random string of letters
1 point: a single phonetically related letter
2 points: correct first letter of the word

3 points: more than one phoneme represented (but not all) with phonetically related or conventional letters

4 points: all phonemes represented with phonetically related letters or conventional letters

5 points: correct phonetic spelling (e.g., "train" spelled "trane")

6 points: correct spelling

As to the subjects' spelling responses for the pseudoword spelling task, the score of each response was calculated using the scale presented above, with the exception of six points for the correct spelling. Because each pseudoword might have several possible spellings, all the highest score for a correct phonetic spelling was 5 points.

RESULTS

The Development of Phonological Awareness and Spelling

An ANOVA was conducted to determine the significance of various factors. As shown in Table 1, the main effect of years, as well as tasks, has reached a very significant level (p < .01). However, the interaction between years and tasks is not significant (p > .05). Table 2 reveals that the group with 4 years of English learning (hereafter Group B) outperformed the group with 2 years of English learning (hereafter Group A) on both tasks. In addition, both groups performed better on task 1 (phonological awareness) than task 2 (spelling). A comparison between the performance of the two groups on the phonological awareness and spelling tasks is examined first, followed by the comparison of the performance levels of the phonological awareness and spelling subtasks.

Table 1
ANOVA Table of Scores of Tasks as a Function of Years

Source of variation	*SS*	*Df*	*F*	*P*
Main effect				
Years of English Learning	4685.833	1	22.114	.000
Task type	2543.366	1	12.003	.002
Interaction effect				
Years* Task type	463.654	1	2.188	.152

Table 2

Mean Percentages and Standard Deviation of Scores on the Tasks for Groups

	Group A		Group B	
	%	*SD*	%	*SD*
Task 1	71.03	15.03	88.77	7.06
Task 2	43.83	22.71	77.85	7.49

Note: Task 1 = Phonological awareness tasks; Task 2 = Spelling tasks

As can be seen from Table 3, the Pearson correlation reveals a positive correlation ($r = .736$) between years of English learning and spelling, suggesting that a main significant level has been reached, $p < .01$. Also, the correlation between years of English learning and phonological awareness has reached a significant level ($r = .632, p < .05$).

A second analysis compares the correlation between years of English learning and levels of phonological awareness/spelling subtasks. The results are summarized in Table 4. Each level of phonological awareness and spelling subtasks is highly correlated with the variable of years of English learning, except for the syllable awareness task. Unlike other levels concerned with phonological awareness, syllable awareness fails to correlate significantly with years of English learning ($r = .238$, $p > .05$). To summarize, the analyses of correlation provide evidence that both phonological awareness and spelling generally improve with years of English learning.

Table 3

Correlation Between Years of English Learning and Phonological Awareness/ Spelling

	Phonological Awareness	Spelling
Years of English Learning	.632*	.736**

** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

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Table 4

Correlation Between Years of English Learning and Levels of Phonological Awareness/ Spelling Subtasks

	Phonological Awareness			Spelling	
	Phonemic awareness	Syllable awareness	Onset-rime awareness	Real-word Spelling	Pseudoword Spelling
Years	.586*	.238 *ns*	.676**	.750**	.695**

** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

The Relationship Between Phonological Awareness and Spelling between Groups

Table 5 shows the relationship between phonological awareness and spelling. The result indicates that phonological awareness is highly correlated with spelling ($r = .909$, $p < .001$). In order to investigate which levels of phonological awareness are crucial in the relation with spelling, Table 6 and Table 7 display correlations between the three levels of phonological awareness and the two spelling subtasks for both groups.

Table 5

Correlation Coefficients Between Phonological Awareness & Spelling

	Phonological awareness
Spelling	.909***

*** $p < .001$

Table 6 reveals that for Group A, phonemic awareness and onset-rime awareness are significantly correlated with both real-word and pseudoword spelling. Syllable awareness, however, fails to significantly correlate with real-word spelling ($p > .05$) though it shows a significant correlation with pseudoword spelling ($r = .762$, $p < .05$). Similar to the results for Group A, Table 7 shows a significant correlation between phonemic awareness with real-word ($r = .807$, $p < .05$) and pseudoword spelling ($r = .852$, $p < .05$) for Group B. Also, for Group B, onset-rime awareness shows a high correlation with real-word spelling ($r = .971$, $p \leq .001$) and pseudoword spelling ($r = .893$, $p < .01$). On the other hand, syllable awareness fails to significantly correlate with both real-word and pseudoword spelling for Group B.

Table 6

Correlation Coefficients Between 3 levels of Phonological Awareness & 2 Spelling Subtasks (Group A)

	Phonological Awareness		
	Phonemic Awareness	Syllable Awareness	Onset-rime Awareness
Real-word Spelling	.957***	.749 *ns*	.793*
Pseudo-word Spelling	.955***	.762*	.811*

*** $p \leq .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Table 7

Correlation Coefficients Between 3 Levels of Phonological Awareness & 2 Spelling Subtasks (Group B)

	Phonological Awareness		
	Phonemic Awareness	Syllable Awareness	Onset-rime Awareness
Real-word Spelling	.807 *	-.154 *ns*	.971***
Pseudo-word Spelling	.852*	-.327 *ns*	.893**

*** $p \leq .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Table 8 and Table 9 reveal the relationship between components of the phonological awareness levels and spelling subtasks for Group A and Group B. For both groups, phoneme counting, syllable counting, and rhyming lack significant correlation with real-word and pseudoword spelling. Conversely, phoneme deletion is significantly correlated with the two spelling subtasks for both Group A ($p < .01$) and Group B ($p < .05$). Furthermore, onset-rime deletion significantly correlates with the spelling subtasks for both groups as well. Phoneme segmentation and syllable deletion are significantly correlated with the spelling tasks for Group A ($p < .05$), but they are not significantly correlated with the spelling tasks for Group B.

Table 8
Correlation Between Components of Phonological Awareness Levels & Spelling Subtasks (Group A)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Real-word Spelling	.681 *ns*	**.878****	**.958*****	.446 *ns*	**.860***	.229 *ns*	**.848***
Pseudoword Spelling	.641 *ns*	**.937****	**.964*****	.449 *ns*	**.877****	.228 *ns*	**.870***

Table 9
Correlation Between Components of Phonological Awareness Levels & Spelling Subtasks (Group B)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Real-word Spelling	.524 *ns*	**.820***	.447 *ns*	-.52 *ns*	-.225 *ns*	.302 *ns*	**.946*****
Pseudoword Spelling	.449 *ns*	**.872***	.607 *ns*	-.387 *ns*	-.399 *ns*	.329 *ns*	**.859****

*** $p \leq .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Note1: 1= Phoneme counting; 2= Phoneme deletion; 3= Phoneme segmentation; 4= Syllable counting; 5= Syllable deletion; 6= Rhyming; 7= Onset-rime deletion

Note2: Number in bold-face indicates correlation at a significant level

The Relationship Between Phonological Awareness Components and Spelling

As stated earlier, one of the purposes of the study was to examine which components of phonological skills can serve as a strong predictor for the development of spelling skills. The results are presented in Table 10 and Table 11. In Table 10, the results show that phoneme deletion, phoneme segmentation, and onset-rime deletion abilities are significantly correlated with real-word spelling (p<.001), followed by syllable deletion and phoneme counting abilities in sequence. Similar to Table 10, the analysis of Table 11 indicates that performance in phoneme counting, phoneme deletion, phoneme segmentation, syllable deletion, and onset-rime deletion is significantly correlated with the pseudoword spelling task.

Moreover, it is worth noting that as shown in both Table 10 and Table 11, overall the three phonemic awareness components (phoneme counting, phoneme deletion, and phoneme segmentation) in the study are significantly correlated with real-word and pseudoword spelling. Besides, syllable deletion of syllable awareness and rhyming deletion of onset-rime awareness are significantly correlated with both spelling subtasks (p≤.001).

Table 10
The Overall Correlation Between the Components of Phonological Awareness Levels & Real-word Spelling

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Real-word Spelling	.718**	**.841*****	**.931*****	.400 *ns*	**.772*****	.439 *ns*	**.923*****

Table 11
The Overall Correlation Between the Components of Phonological Awareness Levels & Pseudoword Spelling

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pseudoword Spelling	**.703****	**.858*****	**.961*****	.363 *ns*	**.811*****	.430 *ns*	**.913*****

*** *p*≤.001 ** *p*<.01 * *p*<.05

Note1: 1= Phoneme counting; 2= Phoneme deletion; 3= Phoneme segmentation; 4= Syllable counting; 5= Syllable deletion; 6= Rhyming; 7= Onset-rime deletion

Note2: Number in bold-face indicates correlation at a significant level

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study investigated the development of phonological awareness and spelling for Taiwanese young EFL learners who had studied English for two to four years, and explored the relationship between phonological awareness and spelling ability. As indicated in previous studies (e.g., Nation & Hulme, 1997), a developmental trend exists in phonological awareness/spelling abilities in L1 acquisition of English. In the present study, the results also showed that there is a developmental change in the performance of phonological awareness and spelling in L2 acquisition for young EFL learners. Phonemic awareness, onset-rime awareness, real-word spelling, and pseudoword spelling have been found to improve significantly with years of English learning. Overall, tasks performed by Group B obtained higher scores than those performed by Group A. And the positive correlations between tasks and years of learning revealed in the study provide empirical evidence that phonological awareness and spelling improve with years of English learning.

In addition, consistent with previous research, the findings show that phonological awareness and spelling are positively correlated (e.g., Bryant, Maclean, Bradley, & Crossland, 1990; Huang & Hanley, 1994; O'Connor, 1994; Su, 2001; Tunmer & Nesdale, 1985). However, since phonological awareness is a heterogeneous set of skills, it remains controversial as to which levels of phonological awareness are crucial in the relation with spelling. In the present study, it has been shown that phonemic awareness and onset-rime awareness are significantly positive correlated with spelling while syllable awareness fails to be significantly positive correlated with spelling. So far, few studies have confirmed a significant contribution of syllable awareness to spelling. Moreover, as shown from the results of this study, syllable awareness and spelling are negatively correlated in Group B. In other words, students in Group B who performed well on the syllable awareness tasks did not necessarily succeed on the spelling tasks. Thus, EFL learners in Group B who performed well on the syllable deletion did not perform well in spelling. It is speculated that since syllables may be the representation of larger units in the earlier stage of language acquisition, the syllable deletion task is easier to perform than spelling tasks, which concerns the analysis of smaller units (Morais, Alegria & Content, 1987; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991). Besides, subjects were given more linguistic cues during the experiment by having information on the targeted syllable in the syllable deletion task. As to the negative correlation between syllable counting and spelling, by examining subjects' responses to syllable counting in Group B, it was revealed that some subjects who performed well on the spelling tasks failed to perform well on syllable counting. It is suspected that syllable counting, regarded as a more complex task, requires more cognitive demand and steps for completion, so it imposes a greater burden on memory and tends to be more difficult to perform. As to the level of onset-rime awareness, consistent with some studies (Bradley, 1992, 1988; Goswami & Bryant, 1992), in this study, it also played a significant role in spelling. Previous studies have indicated that in the early years of English learning, the ability of grouping together words sharing rhymes or onsets fosters the ability of analogy strategy which is available for children from the very beginning of learning to spell. In the present study, the evidence was provided that onset-rime deletion, as part of onset-rime awareness underlying the analogy strategy, was correlated with spelling tasks in both groups. However, rhyming, the other component of onset-rime awareness, failed to correlate with spelling tasks. Perhaps, it is due to the fact that the rhyming task was too easy for both groups so that subjects in both groups could perform well on this task. In addition, in terms of the components of phonemic awareness, phoneme segmentation is shown to be highly correlated with spelling ability which is in congruence with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Nation & Hulme, 1997; Treiman, 1991). Besides, phoneme counting and phoneme deletion are significantly correlated with spelling ability as well.

The results not only support the hypothesis that phonological awareness will improve with years of English learning but also confirm that phonological awareness is heterogeneous in at least two ways (see Chard & Dickson, 1999; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991). The first sort of heterogeneity of phonological awareness concerns the linguistic level which indicated that phonological awareness is composed by the continuum of complexity of skills. According to the mean percentage for each phonological awareness task listed in Table 12, the tasks on rhyming and two components of syllable awareness are easier to perform for Group A. The finding of this study lends support to the claim of the studies mentioned earlier (Chard & Dickson, 1999; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991). As to Group B, it is hard to tell if development of rhyming and syllable awareness is earlier. Since the mean percentage of each phonological awareness task has reached a high level, phonological awareness has been almost fully developed, particularly in the progression of phoneme counting and onset-rime deletion abilities. In contrast to Chard and Dickson's study (1999) in which the manipulation of phonemes is the highest and most difficult level of phonological awareness on the continuum, followed by the onset-rime manipulation, the performance in onset-rime deletion turned out to be difficult with the lowest mean percentage for Group A and a relatively low mean percentage for Group B. Moreover, if onset-rime awareness is developed prior to phoneme-level manipulation, it should be expected that when the subjects had difficulty in phoneme decoding tasks, they still would segment the items into onset and rimes units. However, in the data collection process, it was found that the subjects couldn't segment words into onset and rimes when they had difficulties in decoding words into phonemes. A possible explanation is that in the Taiwan EFL environment, EFL learners tend to receive more phonics instruction in phoneme-level decoding rather than subsyllable-level decoding, such as the onset-rime task. The second sort of heterogeneity of phonological awareness concerns the different levels of cognitive demand involved in the phonological awareness task. As mentioned earlier, more complex tasks, requiring more processing steps for completion and a greater burden on memory, are more difficult than the simpler ones. Compared with phoneme counting, segmentation and deletion tasks require less cognitive effort, and are easier to perform. For both groups, phoneme deletion and phoneme segmentation obtain higher mean percentages than phoneme counting. Similar argumentation also helps explain why syllable deletion obtains a higher mean percentage than syllable counting.

Table 12

Mean Percentages and Standard Deviation of Phonological Awareness Components for Groups

	Group A		Group B	
	%	*SD*	%	*SD*
Phoneme counting	61.91	29.61	81.63	10.8
Phoneme deletion	76.19	14.55	90.48	12.29
Phoneme segmentation	62.59	29.54	93.20	7.71
Syllable counting	78.23	9.06	86.40	13.59
Syllable deletion	85.03	13.02	96.60	5.97
Rhyming	86.43	17.25	96.43	3.78
Onset-rime deletion	37.86	36.95	86.43	19.3

To sum up, this study has shown that in an EFL learning environment, phonological awareness greatly contributes to early literacy development. This result is similar to previous studies that have been conducted in L1 setting. It is worth noting that learners with better phonemic detection ability tend to get higher scores on spelling tasks. In other words, to spell English words, a child must be aware that words can be broken into phonemes and each phoneme corresponds to a grapheme in an orthographic language. The relationship between phonemic awareness and spelling skill highlights the significance of fostering the abilities of phonological awareness for EFL learners, and point to some universal implications for language development.

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Appendix A

Phoneme Detection Tasks

I. Phonological Awareness Tasks

List of words for phoneme counting task

1. /b/
2. much
3. at
4. watch
5. now
6. pay
7. /k/
8. cheap
9. /z/
10. all
11. May
12. salt
13. buy
14. /u/
15. /f/
16. math
17. bowl
18. key
19. live
20. /i/
21. /e/

List of words for phoneme deletion task

1. chin
2. medicine
3. cheese
4. stand
5. ready
6. hand
7. brush
8. dream
9. think
10. along
11. voice
12. smell
13. wind
14. hill
15. east
16. swing
17. teach
18. gray
19. form
20. spoon
21. next

List of words for phoneme segmentation task

1. knee
2. well
3. rich
4. short
5. face
6. why
7. bark
8. her
9. that
10. me
11. most
12. space
13. age
14. both
15. may
16. know
17. beach
18. movie
19. read
20. class
21. pizza

Ⅱ. Syllable Awareness Tasks

List of words for syllable counting task

1. baby
2. person
3. up
4. tooth
5. ankle
6. beautiful
7. prince
8. seventeen
9. Friday
10. tomato
11. clever
12. November
13. heart
14. baseball
15. few
16. evening
17. ago
18. June
19. umbrella
20. once
21. unhappy

List of words for syllable deletion task

1. July
2. eleven
3. little
4. September
5. understand
6. again
7. finish
8. welcome
9. policeman
10. drawing
11. below
12. apartment
13. classmate
14. computer
15. picnic
16. hamburger
17. afternoon
18. tomorrow
19. basketball
20. sixteen
21. underwear

Ⅲ. Onset-rime Awareness Tasks

List of words for rhyming task

1. coat/boat
2. busy/eight
3. funny/sunny
4. polite/kite
5. bad/butter
6. cute/pretty
7. house/mouse
8. run/blue
9. bear/hair
10. cake/lake
11. machine/half
12. pack/back
13. guess/good
14. wall/tall
15. behind/find
16. proud/poor
17. get/let
18. food/dollar
19. windy/cloudy
20. tummy/strong

List of words for onset-rime segmentation task

1. pick
2. lip
3. neck
4. skirt
5. cold
6. dear
11. cry
12. night
13. king
14. blind
15. sail
16. clock

7. late
8. nice
9. street
10. gray
17. share
18. spring
19. moon
20. spell

Appendix B

Spelling Tasks

Ⅰ. Real-word Spelling Task

Elementary

1. bed
2. hat
3. run
4. arm
5. toy
6. coin
7. taxi
8. jump
9. ship
10. lake
11. fly
12. nose
13. desk
14. gift
15. milk
16. horse
17. teeth
18. sport
19. plane
20. story

Pre-intermediate & intermediate

1. nod
2. gun
3. join
4. point
5. bite
6. moon
7. chin
8. shake
9. coach
10. star
11. drop
12. grass
13. score
14. fresh
15. touch
16. build
17. pillow
18. circle
19. desert
20. hundred

Ⅱ. Pseudoword Spelling Task

Pseudoword Items	*Original Real Words*
1. /læt/	1. "let" /lɛt/
2. /prag/	2. "frog" /frag/
3. /tʃik/	1. "cheap" /tʃip/
4. /ˈθɜbɪ/	2. "thirty" /ˈθɜtɪ/
5. /saʊnt/	3. "sound" /saʊnd/
6. /trædʒ/	4. "trash" /træʃ/
7. /səˋlaɪt/	5. "polite" /pəˋlaɪt/
8. /ˈsɪmɪŋ/	8. "living" /ˈlɪvɪŋ/
9. /hut/	9. "hate" /het/
10. /brɛʃ/	10. "bread" /brɛd/
11. /ˈyʌlo/	11. "yellow" /ˈyɛlo/
12. /kaʊp/	12. "cup" /kʌp/

13. /nɪθ/	13. “with” /wɪθ/
14. /swɛk/	14. “smoke” /smok/
15. /ˈɔlɚ/	15. “over” /ˈɔvɚ/
16. /vɔɪ/	16. “joy” /dʒɔɪ/
17. /glaɪr/	17. “glad” /glæd/
18. /ˈnitbek/	18. “notebook” /ˈnotbuk/
19. /ˈzurɪ/	19. “zero” /ˈzɪro/
20. /ðɪf/	20. “this” / ðɪs/
21. /hɔrˋgɛt/	21. “forget” /fɔrˋgɛt/
22. /ˈzande/	22. “Monday” /ˈmande/
23. /tɪŋ/	23. “king” /kɪŋ/
24. /dʒas/	24. “job” /dʒab/
25. /ˈfloɚ/	25. “flower” /ˈflaʊɚ/

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台灣英語學童語音自覺及拼字能力之發展研究

摘要

本研究的目的旨在探討台灣地區不同英語學習年限的學童，在語音自覺及英語拼字能力的關係。研究對象取樣於台北縣某一國小十四名學童。依其不同學習年限，分成2年及4年兩組，並接受7個語音自覺測驗和2個拼字測驗。如同以往的研究，本研究結果驗證語音自覺及拼字能力會隨著英語學習年限增長。結果亦顯示音素自覺比其他語音自覺能力，和拼字能力更具相關性。音素自覺能力及拼字能力的關係，突顯出培養非英語系國家學童的語音自覺能力之重要性。

關鍵字：語音自覺能力　音素自覺　拼字能力　台灣英語學童

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Designing Role Plays for the Language Class

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Abstract

This paper addresses issues concerning the design of language-teaching role plays. Constructional considerations of role plays are discussed in terms of their components: the situation, impersonation, improvisation, and task support. The situation and characters can be realistic or fanciful. The stereotypical interactions in the role play can be dramatized to increase the intrinsic motivation. The impersonation organization may take the form of group, dyad, solo, split, or joint role playing. In addition, the degree of improvisation can be managed by optimizing the amount of the script and/or creative work of the role players. Thus role plays range from the unscripted to the semi-scripted, from the creative to the guided. The task support may be given via use of visuals, props, role cards, cues and prompts. It can also be rendered during the pre-task discussion as far as the working knowledge is concerned. At the end of this paper a checklist for role-play design is presented for the convenience of language teaching practitioners.

Key Words: language teaching, role plays, situation, impersonation, improvisation task support

INTRODUCTION

Role plays have been recognized as a useful and valuable technique of language teaching (cf. Shie, 2001; Shie, 2002). Many ESL and EFL textbooks include role plays as meaningful, interactive exercises. Teachers' resource books contain a considerable collection of role plays. Despite the ample supply of language-teaching role plays, there is a lack of research reports concerning the design of role plays. Language teaching practitioners often need to adopt, adapt, and design activities for their students. A careful study on the design of role plays would provide useful information for language teachers as they adapt or design role plays to meet the specific needs of their students.

In this article I seek to provide a detailed examination of the design of a language-teaching role play. According to Shie (2001), role plays can be characterized as "exercises in which participants impersonate characters of real or fictitious people from which they have to improvise verbal and nonverbal behavior… in a make-believe situation." In other words, a role play comprises three basic elements, namely the situation, impersonation, and improvisation. In addition, two optional components may be added to the role play: working knowledge and spare expressions. In the remainder of this paper, I will explore the design of language-teaching role plays, specifically the design of the three basic and the two optional components. As many examples of role plays as possible will be given to illustrate the points under consideration.

THE SITUATION

One of the basic components of a language-teaching role play is the make-believe situation—a general description of the background information for the intended verbal and nonverbal interaction to take place in the role play (Shie, 2001). Depending on the goal and content of a lesson, the role-play situation can be realistic or fanciful. A realistic situation contains an everyday scene (such as a family dinner, a company meeting, a restaurant or the information desk at an airport) which elicits use of some real-life language or performance of some language functions. A typical example from Sanderson (1999, p.119) may be illustrative. The realistic situation is based on small advertisements in newspapers. Students are assigned roles of advertisers and potential customers and have telephone conversations to carry on transactions.

On the other hand, a role play may be enacted around a fanciful situation that is not directly related to the reality outside the classroom. To create a fanciful situation for the role play, the teacher can draw on myths, fables, cartoons, fairy tales, and fiction (such as *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone* and *The Fifth Element*). Take for instance a role play I have designed and implemented. In pairs, the adult students were requested to play the roles of Cinderella and her fairy godmother. They improvised the conversation between the two imaginary characters, repeatedly using the expression *turn into*, an expression the students had recently studied in their textbooks.

It is also possible to create a situation that is both realistic and fanciful. Students may act out fanciful roles in the context of a realistic scene. Student A, for example, gives someone a call, while student B acts as an answering machine, reading his outgoing message. Then student A leaves a message, as if he were speaking into a real answering machine (Zwier, 1999, p.47). Fanciful scenes can also be coupled with realistic characters. To illustrate, after reading the story of *Little Red Riding Hood*, students may assume the roles of a journalist and the wolf's housekeeper. The journalist interviews the housekeeper in order to find out what she thinks of the wolf (Hess and Pollard, 1995, p.34).

One important principle of current mainstream language-teaching methodologies (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Instruction) is that classroom activities should have real-life relevance (cf. Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Skehan, 1998). The role-playing activities in most of the ESL/EFL textbooks available now (e.g. Hall and Blappert, 1999; Maurer and Schoenberg, 1998; Nunan, 2001; Purpura and Pinkley, 2000) are realistic in nature. Realistic situations seem preferable to fanciful ones. However, it would be unwise to abandon fanciful situations altogether. Reality means different things to different groups of learners. For example, children often incorporate imaginary characters and situations into their plays. In addition, intrinsic motivation (i.e. motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake rather than to engage in it as a means to an end) can be promoted with activities that involve learners in fantasy (cf. Dornyei, 2001, p.76; Pintrich and Schunk, 1996, p.277). Many adults enjoy seeing science-fiction movies. Fanciful enactment can generate the pleasure of entering a new world free from the constrains of the actual world. On the other hand, a realistic situation could be monotonous if it involves nothing but stereotypical interaction, as is the case where role players order meals and pay bills in a restaurant. The teacher can increase the intrinsic motivation by dramatizing the role play.

One of the obvious features of a good play is that it contains an element of conflict. To break the monotony of routinized role playing, the teacher can frame the situation in such a way that the characters come into conflict with each other's intentions. The restaurant scene would be more appealing if a dramatic tension or hook (i.e. things beyond the normal, cf. Cockett, 2000) is merged into the role-play situation. For one thing, after ordering the meal, it occurs to the customer that he has left his wallet home and cannot pay the bill. For another, the customer finds that there is something like a fly in his soup but the waiter insists that it is not a fly. In the first example the predicament brings about the hook, and in the second example the hook is the conflict. Other elements that lend themselves to dramatic hooks are surprise, incongruity, embarrassment, love, exaggeration, stress, misunderstanding, coincidence, defiance, scandals, encounters, accidents, and so on.

Having worked out a role-play situation, the teacher may want to choose a medium for presenting the situation. Role players may receive the situation in the form of a written text, especially when the role play is based on a lesson in the textbook or other reading materials. The teacher may also introduce the situation orally as a listening exercise. Cartoons, pictures, and photos are also very effective, especially for children and lower-level students. Where video equipment is available, a short film clip can serve as a good way to introduce the situation. Video presentation probably works best when the role play focuses on cultural events or non-verbal communication (cf. Baddock, 1996, pp.52-3; Fitzgerald, 1997, pp.174-5; Stempleski and Tomalin, 1990, p.90).

IMPERSONATION

Impersonation is the second basic element of a language-teaching role play. Characters to be acted out in a role play may be constructed together with the situation. But some details of impersonation require further consideration.

Role-play characters can be selected from an article or dialogue that the class has just studied. This is perhaps the most convenient approach to role-play characterization since the teacher only needs to alter the situation on hand for the role play. The most common role-play characters are such conjoint pairs as a hotel receptionist and tourist, a shopkeeper and customer, a doctor and patient, and the like. They are familiar roles in our daily lives. The interactions between the coupled roles are largely predictable. Accordingly, the language used in such role plays is easier to prepare and improvise.

Learners may play themselves and interact with each other in a make-believe situation. They may imagine, for example, that they are going to eat out together. Examining ads for three different restaurants, they exchange opinions and decide which restaurant they like best (Lebauer, 1997, pp.28-9). This type of role playing is a mixture of personalization and impersonation (cf. Shie, 1991; Shie, 2002). For the students who feel that losing their identities in classroom activities is threatening, role plays of this type would seem more suitable.

Role players may also project themselves into an imaginary world and act as characters of historical personages, figures in posters, or characters from literary works. They can even act the parts of nonhuman animals or nonliving entities that talk. In an exercise designed by Howe (1985, pp.4-5) on such quantifiers as *many*, *lots of*, *few*, and *little*, children take on the roles of a centipede, fly, snake, alligator, etc., so that they can tell one another how many legs and teeth they have using those quantifiers. In a literary role play proposed by Gerber (1996) students take the roles of important characters from a novel. In heaven, looking back on the events they experienced while living through the novel, they talk about their lives before they died. Another example of a literary role play, adapted from Benjamin (2000, pp.85-8), involves a nonliving entity that talks. Two students role play an interview. One plays a reader of a poem, and the other acts as the part of that poem, speaking in the first person. The interviewer asks some questions about the poem itself. A question from the interviewer includes: What are you (the poem) trying to get me (the reader) to think about?

According to Dubin and Olshtain (1986, p.135) and Revell (1979, p.61), roles fall into five main categories: basic (age, sex, etc.), ascribed (class, nationality, etc.), acquired (social status, wealth, etc.), actional (seller, patient, etc.), and functional (offering assistance, expressing regret, etc.). I have noticed that, while characters in drama and novels usually manifest all these aspects of characterization, this is not the case with characters in language-teaching role plays. Actional and functional characterization is necessary for a role play to operate in the language class. But the other three dimensions of roles are often optional.

A literary approach to categorizing characters involves features that form binary opposites like male/female, good/bad, good-looking/ugly, and so on (cf. Culpeper, 2001, p.48). But realistic characters in role plays are abstractions of real people. A student who simulates ordering a meal in a restaurant, for example, does not need to know the character's hobbies, political interests, or area of residence. Neither does he need to know whether the character is good or evil, handsome or ugly. The role player only needs to be aware of the character's favorite foods and probably his present financial status. Role play designers have to focus their attention on the actional and functional dimensions of characters,

Turning next to the issue of impersonation organization, language-teaching role plays can be divided into five categories: group role playing, dyad role playing, solo role playing, split role playing, and joint role playing. More often than not, a role play is done in pairs. Dyad impersonation can afford students the greatest number of speaking opportunities. Group role playing involves interactions among three roles or more, as is the case with acting out a quiz show or an alumni meeting.

Solo impersonation involves only one role player. It is usually combined with a writing task. Fitzgerald's (1997) writing task is a case in point. Students watch a short film clip that shows a cultural event, and then write a letter to a friend telling him about that cultural event, imagining that they live in the target culture environment. Another writing task with an element of solo impersonation is adapted from Sasser (1999, p.122). Students are requested to write a short Christmas story assuming the role of one of the following characters: an animal in the stable, a shepherd in the field, Mary's donkey, the innkeeper, a sheep in the field, Joseph, and Mary. Students pretend that they were actually on the spot and write about their experience. As these two examples show, solo role playing enable students to write with a particular purpose or perspective and, accordingly, enhances the understanding of the subject matter they are dealing with.

Occasionally, solo role playing can also provide speaking practice. One of the role plays I designed concerns students making wishes. The role player's partner serves as a wishing well. With his/her back to the wishing well, the role player throws a coin toward the wishing well and makes three wishes. The wishing well tries to catch the coin. But other than that, the wishing well does not do or say anything. Therefore, it should be regarded as a prop rather than a role.

Split role playing takes place when a character is split into two or several divided selves. This type of role play lends itself well to the literature class. It involves what Shie (2001, p.80) calls in-depth impersonation. An in-depth impersonator has to project himself/herself deep into the psychology of the character and perform more emphatic speech acts. The inner divisions of a single character often stem from a psychological conflict, such as Hamlet's internal struggle between to be and not to be. Students can try to put themselves into the shoes of the split character. Each of them assumes a divided part, interacts with the other, and decides between the alternatives for action.

A single impersonator can also be split into two or several acting agents. In other words, the same impersonator may carry out different roles. The technique of the empty chair in Gestalt therapy (cf. Legutke and Thomas 1991, p.121) is applicable to split role playing. There should be as many chairs as there are roles to be acted out. Each chair represents a single role. The impersonator takes the empty chair(s) as his conversation partner(s). As he changes from chair to chair, he also changes his roles. The teacher may use this technique to demonstrate a role play when no teaching assistant is available and no student is ready to work with the teacher in front of the class. In addition, students can be taught how to do the role playing alone at home using the technique of the empty chair. This technique is particularly useful in an EFL environment, where most learners have little opportunity to engage in genuine face-to-face interlocution in the target language outside the classroom.

Joint role playing refers to the activity in which two or more students collectively perform a single role. Improvisation calls for real-time actions and reactions. It is not easy for students who are not witty to generate sufficient ideas to carry them through a creative role play. Joint role playing can sustain the momentum of the activity via relays or alternations of impersonators. For example, chairs can be marked with names of characters, or different hats can be assigned to symbolize different roles. The students wearing the hats or sitting on the marked chairs have to improvise the role play. One or more back-up impersonators stand behind their respective active impersonators. When necessary, a back-up impersonator can relieve or replace the active impersonator right after the former, say, taps the latter's shoulder.

Discussing children's pretend play as improvisation, Sawyer (1997, p.83) identifies a natural play activity in which children enact roles through the media of toy figures. By the same token, in the language classroom children may do role plays with toys or puppets (Scott and Ytreberg, 1990, p.39; Vale and Feunteun, 1995, p.43). In such a role play, children speak on behalf of their toys or puppets while moving and manipulating their role-play media. Depending on the numbers of role players and media, the activity can be solo role playing (a single child playing a single role with a toy), split role playing (a single child playing two or more roles with two or more toys), dyad role playing (two children with a toy each), or group role playing (more than two children with a toy each).

IMPROVISATION

Improvisation is the third element to be considered in the design of a role play. The degree of improvisation constitutes the most important factor contributing to the demand or challenge of a role play. The higher degree of improvisation a role play demands, the more challenging the role-play task is. It is a truism that the challenge needs to be within learners' reach. In order to create an optimally challenging role play, the designer needs to work toward an optimal degree of improvisation in accordance with the language level of the students.

The degree of impersonation can be managed by optimizing the amount of the script. An unscripted role play requires the impersonators to improvise all the language during the task. They must draw from their own linguistic knowledge to produce meaningful speech spontaneously. Granted that an unscripted role play allows the impersonators the most latitude to decide what language to use and how to develop the conversation, it also requires them to make immediate real-time responses without any linguistic support. Thus unscripted role plays may intimidate lower-level students. The designer can reduce the degree of improvisation by providing some language for role playing, and the resulting role play is a semi-scripted one. When all role-playing language is provided, the activity plan becomes a set dialogue for students to act out, with little improvisation.

A semi-scripted role play may be based on a given dialogue with gaps for students to fill in with words, phrases, or sentences. The degree of improvisation increases in direct proportion to the amount of choice to be exercised. The gaps may also be a whole conversation turn (i.e. a set of utterances spoken in a sequence by an impersonator up to the point where another impersonator speaks). The given dialogue with gaps may serve as the role-play script or as material for a pre-task to the role play. Here is an example of a semi-scripted role play, in which there is an incomplete dialogue leading the students to the role-playing activity:

(1) Dialogue Completion

(Don, Tom, and Betty are co-workers in an engineering office.)

Don: Don't you like Betty's new hairstyle?

Tom: ______________________________

Don: Me, too. And it makes her look more sophisticated.

Tom: ______________________________

Don: I'm not sure I agree. I like it long.

Tom: ______________________________

Don: You've got a point there. It does show off her eyes better that way.

(Wall, 1998, p.83)

(2) Role play

Work in groups of three. Imagine that you are all Mariah Carey fans. Look at and discuss Mariah Carey's old and new hairstyles.

(Original)

Judd (1999, p.159) points out that "it is very hard to create situations that are realistic and meaningful for both parties in the role play." For example, in a role play in which a travel agent makes arrangements for a customer's vacation, the role of the customer is relevant, but the role of the travel agent is not, because most students will not become a travel agent. The same can be said of the role of a nurse, bank teller, or police officer. My view is that, even if students are unlikely to have these occupations in the real world, they still need to transact or converse with people in these professions. Thus such realistic role plays are still of considerable practical value. The real problem is how to make them practicable. Students could be reluctant to assume the professional roles due to their lack of relevance or interest for the students themselves. In addition, according to Judd (ibid.), the students in these professional roles tend to produce unnatural language. Through my practice I have found that a one-sided script can solve the problem. That is, the turns of the professional character are directly provided or can be selected out of several given options while those for the other role are all left blank. During the role play, the student assuming the professional part can use the talk-and-listen technique introduced by Via (1987, pp.116-7). The student finds his line, reads it to himself, and then looks at his interlocutor and says the line. If he cannot remember the whole line, he may look back. But whenever he speaks, he must look at his interlocutor.

The amount of the creative work the role-play situation elicits also has a bearing on the degree of improvisation. Creative role plays give learners full autonomy and great freedom in the choice of language and content. Role plays that represent the highest degree of improvisation are those which combine the situation with a one-line incomplete script. Specifically, the role players have to invent a conversation starting with the only line provided. The situational information can only be inferred, interpreted, and further developed from the given first line. It is obvious that such creative role plays elicit the use of learners' whole-language resource. But they are by no means confined to advanced adult learners. For example, Phillips (1999, p.119) proposes a creative role play for children which begins with the following single line: Why are you so dirty?

In a second type of creative role play, the situation just gives the bare bones of the role-play content, story, or characters. The impersonators have to draw on their imagination and command of the language to flesh out the role play. A creative role play I have used in a university English class begins with the following brief situation: Tell your spouse, who has just come home from work, that you are divorcing him/her. Imaginative students seemed to enjoy the improvisation very much and could not stop their argument over the divorce. My students could easily find their grounds for divorcing their spouses because before the role play there was a class discussion on the reasons why some people get divorced. What was challenging was that the role players had to keep making up details of the events, setting, characters, and the like in order to sustain the conversation. In such role plays, the information gaps are not prescribed by the teacher, but created by the impersonators (students), hence the name 'creative role plays.'

A third example of a creative role play comes from Scharle and Szabo (2000, pp.85-6). Students simulate having a party. Accountable for the party conversations, they are invited to write their own role descriptions. Just as in a fancy dress ball, they can take on the identity of someone else, borrowing any personal characteristics they would like to have. This role play is less of an improvisational activity than the divorce role play introduced previously, for the information gaps in the former are created by the role players before improvisation while those in the latter are created during improvisation.

The teacher may further reduce the amount of improvisation or creative challenge by adding some details to the sketchy role-play situation. Take for instance the divorce role play. The cause of the divorce may be provided (e.g., extramarital affairs). The family background may be outlined (e.g., children, financial status, etc.). And the couple's personality traits may be prescribed. When it comes to the story line, the beginning may be provided in words or through a picture, from which the impersonators have to develop a conversation and bring it to a close. Likewise, the ending may be determined in advance; the students have to create a beginning that leads to the predetermined end.

Impersonators' imagination and creativity can be directed toward something other than characters or story lines. To illustrate, in a group role play devised by Taylor (1985, p.64) students create a political party they would like to belong to and make speeches in role as a party representative. In a role play proposed by Connerton and Reid (1993, p.235) students create their own new products as well as an advertising slogan and introduce them to possible buyers.

With a view toward developing students' pragmatic competence, the teacher may apply what Byrne (1986) calls "mapped dialogues" to the role play. The impersonators perform speech acts with functional cues for each speaker on separate cards, as illustrated below:

Card A: (1) Invite your partner to go out with you.
(2) Suggest another possibility.
(3) Confirm arrangement.
Card B: (1) Decline
(2) Accept
(3) Agree
(Byrne, 1986, p.120)

Since the conversation and interaction are guided throughout, we may call such an exercise 'guided role play.' Functional cues, if not complicated, may be incorporated into the role-play situation. Guided role plays focus more on students' ability to use the language they have learned than on their improvisational creativity. In fact, guided role plays come between the two extremes on the scale of improvisation, which runs from completely creative to completely controlled.

TASK SUPPORT

As mentioned previously, role plays simulate real-time communication. Role players are requested to alienate themselves from their own normal identities and project themselves as other personas. They are supposed to perceive other impersonators' ideas appropriately, formulate their utterances in real time, and give prompt and spontaneous responses. Task demands of this kind can cause a lot of stress upon more inhibited or introverted students (cf. Shie 2002). For a role play to operate smoothly, the teacher needs to provide adequate support.

Visuals like photos, pictures, figures, cartoons, and sequences of video can make students more conversant with the role-play situation. Props such as bills, menus, timetables, street plans, catalogues, advertisements, and shopping lists give students quick access to relevant information so that they do not have to make up too many consistent details during the role play.

It is simpler to get students into their roles if they are to impersonate characters from a story or textbook article that the class has just studied. Otherwise, additional support will be called for to familiarize them with the role-play situation. Role cards – sketching out a role, the situation, and the task to be carried out – can help create information gaps and get the role play going. Here is a brief example, attributed to Hadfield (1992, pp.144-5):

> Parent: You are having a row with your teenage daughter. You think she is too young to go to the parties and come back late at night.
>
> Daughter: You are having a row with your parents. They won't let you go out to friends' parties, and say you are too young to stay out late. It's not fair – All your friends go to parties!

Shie (2001) proposes two optional components of a TESOL role play, namely spare expressions and working knowledge. Working knowledge is the general knowledge necessary to the role play. In many cases, students have sufficient working knowledge already, as is the case in which they pretend to ask their mothers, who are resistant, to increase their pocket money. But when they role play unfamiliar or exotic situations, the teacher has to impart the working knowledge first. The following example from an actual textbook (Folse, 1996, pp.131-2) may be illustrative. Students work in threes, playing the roles of a doctor and a childless couple. The couple goes to see the doctor because they want to have a child using egg implantation. The mother is 45. The doctor has done egg implantation many times, but the oldest age of one of his previous patients was 32. Students could possibly feel it very hard to move the role play on if they do not have the general knowledge about in vitro fertilization. Therefore, it is more feasible to treat the role play as a follow-up activity to a reading text on in vitro fertilization which provides the necessary working knowledge. In between the reading activity and the role play, the teacher can get students to discuss the related subjects, guiding them toward the improvisation.

The component of working knowledge may also embrace the pragmatic or cultural knowledge needed for the role-play task. For one thing, the expression used to ask for information in a travel agency is different from that used between good friends. Knowledge of appropriate stylistic varieties can help role players simulate a real-world situation more successfully. In addition, different cultural groups may have different cultural expectations in some situations. For example, when giving a gift to a friend, Americans usually expect the friend to unwrap the gift immediately, but traditional Chinese do not. Relevant cultural knowledge can smooth cross-cultural communication.

During a role play, students need to know what to say and how to say it in the target language. If they have a hard time figuring out what to say, they need additional support. For example, they may perform speech acts within prescribed parameters with the aid of functional guidelines, as illustrated below:

Traveller: Check frequency of trains to Cambridge.
Ticket Clerk: (frequent departures)
Traveller: Ask if trains are non-stop.
Ticket Clerk: (Some, but some make several stops)
Traveller: Check times of services later in day.
Ticket Clerk: Give times for direct trains and trains that make stops.
Traveller: Decide, buy a ticket, reserve a seat, verify dining facilities, etc.
(Cross, 1995, p.151)

In a less guided manner, options as to what to say may be given for the students to choose and some questions can be provided as prompts. Take, as an example, a role play from Helgesen et al. (1999, pp.47-8). Students simulate planning an event (such as a garbage clean-up along a beach or food stand at a school festival). The following questions and prompts are given:

(1) What do you have to do to get ready?
  ※ publicity
  ※ get volunteers
  ※ things to buy
  ※ things to borrow or rent
  ※ a place to have the event
(2) When will you do them?
  ※ one month before
  ※ one week before
  ※ the day before
  ※ the day of the event

The teacher may also provide spare expressions to assist impersonators. Spare expressions are words, phrases, idioms, formulaic expressions, or sentences (in isolation or a grammar matrix) that may be used by role players. Spare expressions, if any, should be made available during the role play, especially to the students with limited language ability in a large mixed ability class. These expressions can be written on the board or incorporated into cue cards. The teacher may also include spare expressions in a pre-task to the role play. For example, in an exercise in Gitsaki and Taylor (2000, p.27), names of some types of restaurants are provided (e.g., Chinese, Italian, and fast-food restaurants). Students are requested to write food items from a list (e.g., dim sum, spaghetti carbonara, etc.) or one of their own for each type of restaurant, before they role play choosing a type of restaurant and a food item to eat. Without knowing the names of some food items, students will not be able to carry out the role-playing task.

A role play can be very simple, requiring little preparation. The teacher can have the students explore their ideas by acting them out directly. When it comes to a role play that involves an unusual role-play situation or a higher degree of improvisation, it is best if the teacher can give the students a few minutes to gather momentum by establishing their ideas about the setting, characters, and so on. A model dialogue may be offered that contains examples of spare expressions in context. As a last resort, the teacher may try a preliminary demonstration either together with a student volunteer or alone in the form of split role playing using the empty chair technique.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper we have discussed a variety of factors in the design of a language-teaching role play. Let us conclude our discussion with a checklist for the convenience of language teaching practitioners.

(1) Do the role-play situation and characters need to be realistic or fanciful?

☐ realistic ☐ fanciful ☐ both

(2) Is it necessary to dramatize the stereotypical interactions in the role play to increase the intrinsic motivation?

☐ yes ☐ no

(3) What type of impersonation organization is called for?

☐ group ☐ dyad ☐ solo ☐ split ☐ joint

(4) What details do the character descriptions need for the role play to operate adequately?

☐ basic ☐ ascribed ☐ acquired ☐ actional ☐ functional

(5) To what extent does the role play need to be improvisational?

☐ creative ☐ semi-creative ☐ guided

(6) To what extent does the role play need to be scripted?

☐ unscripted ☐ semi-scripted ☐ one-sided

(7) What types of task support are needed?

☐ visuals ☐ props ☐ role cards ☐ cues or prompts

☐ working knowledge ☐ spare expressions

All the items on the above list are concerned with the structure of a role play.

Items 1-3 may vary with teaching objectives, and Items 4-7 offers important dimensions to the grading of language-teaching role plays. This checklist summarizes what has been discussed in this paper. Language teaching practitioners may utilize it to design their own role plays to meet their students' special needs.

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語言教學即席劇之設計

摘要

本文旨在探討語言教學即席劇之設計。語言教學即席劇之建構，其考量因素包括語言情境、角色扮演、即席互動、活動扶持。語言情境與角色可以是寫實的，亦可是虛幻的。即席劇中若干例行之互動可加以戲劇化，以提升其內在之活動誘因。角色扮演之組織可在五種形式中擇一使用：小組式、雙人式、單人式、分裂式、聯合式。即席互動之程度係由台詞之多寡與創造性之高低所決定的。因此語言教學即席劇可以是沒有台詞或是只有部份台詞的，可以是創造性或是引導性的。而活動之扶持可透過下列方式進行：視覺影像、小道具、角色卡、各種提示、備用辭語。參與即席劇必備之基本知識可在活動前之討論中提供之。最後作者提出一個綜合性之規劃表供語言教學即席劇設計者參考。

關鍵詞：語言教學　即席劇　語言情境　角色扮演　即席互動
活動扶持

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Complementary Relevance of Machine Translation to Human Translation: A Theoretical Study

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Abstract

This paper addresses the theoretical issue of complementary relevance of machine translation (MT) to human translation (HT). An inquiry into the disparities between MT and HT is conducted in terms of the translation process, text types and translation tools. Outlining their differences is aimed at illustrating the potential benefits based on their cooperation. For readers to have a greater understanding of MT, a short history of MT systems is presented. This is followed by an introduction of specific examples used to justify the complementary relationship between MT and HT. A hybrid MT-and-HT learning scheme is then proposed for the fulfillment of pedagogical objectives in the conceptual, linguistic and technological areas. The proposed integration of MT into HT is expected to equip student translators with the required professional knowledge and techniques of modern translators so as to have better opportunities of employment in the international translation market in the cyberage.

Key Words: MT, HT, complementary relationship, hybrid-MT-and-HT learning Scheme

INTRODUCTION

The idea of using computers to translate natural languages was proposed in the 1940s, followed by elaborate research and development of various related software. From then on, machine translation (MT) has traveled a turbulent 50-year-long journey on a rough, uneven road as a result of voices expressing dissent, fear, anxiety, consent or indifference. Obviously, translators and translation instructors or scholars watched MT development either scornfully or with fright. A scornful comment goes that MT equals "Mad Translation" while the fearful reaction is seen in the refusal to use MT. In addition, those who only use MT occasionally view the modernized translation technology with no particular concern or expectation. In light of these controversial responses, one is driven to question the relevance of MT to the conventional human translation (HT). Thus, this paper attempts to illustrate the relationship between MT and HT by investigating such aspects as the translation process, and different texts and tools required in both MT and HT. A probe into how MT functionally helps HT is expected to identify the useful role of MT as an aid to HT in the modern translation industry and in the academic environment for translator training.

In his paper entitled "Machine Translation and Human Translation: in Competition or in Complementation?," John Hutchins (2001) pinpointed two attitudes in reaction to MT. One was disbelief in mechanized translation; the other was professional translators' fear that their jobs would be taken over entirely by computers or machines. In the same paper, Hutchins (2001) raised a negative view of MT by exemplifying the words of J. E. Holmström in a report for UNESCO. Holmström's view was that "from a MT system, the resulting literary style would be atrocious and full of 'howlers' and false values than the worst that any human translator produces." Holmstöm's reason was that "translation was an art; something which at every step involved personal choices between uncodifiable alternatives; not merely direct substitutions of equated sets of symbols but choices of values dependent for their soundness on the whole antecedent education and personality of the translator" (see Hutchins, 2001). Such comments make sense as one evaluates the quality of an MT crude draft without any post-editing or revision. The situation becomes worse as one compares an MT draft with the human translation in the case where MT is used to translate expressive or evocative texts instead of informative texts. Therefore, it is assumed that such negative comments will be heard again in the next fifty years if the quality of MT output is not greatly improved.

The recent introduction of translator workstations as an effective tool to assist professional translators has helped diminish the previously dramatic antagonism toward the MT community. Professional translators are aware of the fact that computer-based translation systems enable them to work more productively in technical translation. A consensus has been reached that MT systems and extensive computer aided translation (CAT) tools are not rivals to human translators. Automation and MT will not be a threat to the livelihood of the translator, but will be the source of even greater business and will be the means of achieving improved working conditions (see Hutchins, 2001). Actually, computer-based MT and other related aids that have been invented since the 1970s are based on an assumption that the incorporation of human translators' expertise is needed at various stages of MT operation to achieve a higher, publishable quality of translation.

An even more optimistic reaction to MT goes that criticism of MT's failure to translate Shakespeare is like the unreasonable criticism that a robot is useless because it is not able to dance Swan Lake. One cannot say that MT is useless when it cannot provide a perfect literary translation. Indeed, it is not fair to deny the capabilities of MT systems simply because un-edited MT drafts fail to achieve the publishable standard. This case is analogous to the situation where a man ridiculously denounces a washing machine as ineffective and useless because it cannot wash dishes. In general, every machine or device is invented for specific functions so that the assessment of its usefulness is supposed to be made within the framework of the initially designed purposes.

One may claim that MT systems, if appropriately used, serve as an effective aid to HT. Furthermore, it is suggested that MT integrated into HT can help create massive business benefits. The hybrid MT-and-HT scheme may be a promising endeavor for the translation industry, and the experience garnered in the business setting could be used to develop MT-HT training models for academic settings. If so, student translators might receive advanced training in computer-based translation tools, leading to better employment opportunities in the international translation market.

Now, to convince readers of complementary relevance of MT to HT, an investigation into their different functions is made in order to justify the great potential of the mixed use of MT and HT.

MT VS. HT: DIFFERENCES IN THE TRANSLATION PROCESS, TEXTS & TOOLS

An inquiry into the disparities between MT and HT can be conducted in terms of the translation process, different text types for MT and HT, and the different tools used in these two methods. To bring to light their differences serves as a stepping stone to illustrate the benefits of higher productivity, lower costs and better quality based on their cooperation.

The Translation Process

MT and HT are both subjected to three operations--analysis, transfer and generation--in the entire translation process, but these underlying the operations are different in the two methods. In the case of HT, human translators use sufficient bilingual knowledge and bicultural sense to interpret the messages. Then, they seek to code switch between the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) by finding proper equivalents or using alternative terms. Certainly various strategies are used like grammatical modification, structural reversal and compensation by lexical deletion or lexical addition, etc. Eventually, human translators encode the transferred linguistic items in the way they assume to be accepted by readers in the TL community. Since translation is mainly a decision strategy, the choice of proper equivalents or modified expressions in the TL resides with the translator. And it is knowledge about the world and the specialized subject matter that human translators use to measure, judge and make the correct choice. If an incorrect choice is suspected and discovered in the revision stage, further checking is required by consulting books, experts or other online resources.

The translation process of MT reveals similar steps, but contains different underlying operations. Firstly, in the analysis step, inanimate corpus-based MT systems resort to the stored lexical databank, structural information and selectional restriction rules (semantics) to interpret the source text (ST). This action is different from human translators who use internal intuition, world sense and conscious linguistic knowledge to conduct a similar analysis. More specifically, the following example illustrates how the MT system disambiguates the unclear structures and lexical entries. For example, in analyzing the sentence "*Jack killed the old man with a knife*" implicit with double meanings, the MT parser is supposed to identify whether it means "*Jack used a knife to kill the old man*" or "*Jack used an unknown device to kill the old man who held a knife in his hands.*" And in translating the word "live," the MT parser is forced to decide whether it refers to an adjective or a verb and which one is correct to match the position where the original word is located. Encountering these two situations, human translators use the contextual meaning to judge its implication, but current MT systems available in Taiwan's local market don't have powerful parsers to go beyond the sentence to check the contextual links between sentences. As such, the syntactic and lexical ambiguities treated by MT systems read semantically ridiculous in translations of English to Chinese and vice versa.

The next step, the transfer operation of MT systems, involves changes in sentence structures and grammatical features of lexical items. For example, in translating the sentence "He is a great singer" into Chinese, it is better to change the noun phrase "a great singer" into a verbal phrase in the form of a verb plus an adverb like "sing greatly." Then, the localized Chinese translation is "他唱得很棒" rather than the direct translation as "他是很棒的歌手." Moreover, the order of main clause (主要子句) and subordinate clause (從屬子句) in an English sentence, when transferred into Chinese, usually has to be adapted or converted. A powerful rule-based MT system is capable of doing these things properly, but a poor MT system is not.

After the transfer operation, or more appropriately described, after being incorporated in the transfer operation, MT systems are expected to generate the target language by producing the correct morphology and word order. For example, after getting the transferred English sentence "Mary **everyday** **watch** TV" from the Chinese sentence "瑪麗天天看電視." the MT generator should revise it into the way a native English speaker would say this statement. Then, based on the English syntactic structure, the time adverb "everyday" should be put at the end of the sentence. And the English gender agreement rule requires that "s" or "es" be placed after the root verb when the subject noun is the third person pronoun or the singular noun. Thus, "watch" should be revised into "watches," then the appropriate English translation should be "Mary watches TV everyday." At this point, it is clear that a competent MT generator is likely to apply the rules of grammatical modification and gender agreement, while a poor one cannot. In the next part, different types of texts used for MT and HT will be discussed.

Different Text Types for MT and HT

Basically, MT systems are designed and developed to deal with texts limited to the sublanguage of a particular subject field (e.g. biochemistry) and/or document type (e.g. patents) (Hutchins, 1995). However, the HT method is applicable to all types of texts and its performance varies from translator to translator. Therefore, while the quality of MT drafts mainly depends on the right type of texts, the quality of HT is decided by the linguistic competence and professional background of the translator.

In most cases, an experienced translator equipped with proficient translation strategies and sufficient background knowledge of the specialized field is sure to perform better than a less experienced translator who is not familiar with the subject matter and does not have much idea of specific translation skills. In contrast, a good MT system with more powerful parsers and larger databanks is not expected to perform better than a poor MT system when applied to translate an inappropriate text like a poem. Only if MT systems work in a controlled language or domain-specific environment can they perform satisfactorily. In other words, a source text that restricts the range of vocabulary and excludes the use of homonymy, homographs, polysemy and complex sentence structures is appropriate for MT. Good examples are user's manuals, timetables, information about hotel accommodations, weather reports or travel information. One of the most successful MT systems is the TAUM METEO system which has been used since 1978 by the Canadian Weather Service for routine translation of English weather reports into French (O'Hagan, 1996: 30). Due to the short sentences and standard phraseology in weather reports, the MT performance has reached a success rate of about 95% for unaided translation (Nagao, 1989: 33). In short, the text fit for MT application is domain-specific with simple structural form and a single meaning of words so that computers may process them easily.

Different Tools Used in MT and HT

The tools used in MT and HT show a big gap that can be illustrated along with the workflow steps, namely, the text-preparation stage, translation stage and post-translation stage. In the pre-translation stage, human translators get the printed document and then copy it with double spaces between lines so that they may directly do translation within the space. In the case of MT application, if the source text is given on paper or in a graphical image, it must be converted into a machine readable form. The devices used for conversion can be scanners, optical character recognition (OCR), imaged character recognition (ICR) and optical mark readers (OMRs). However, conversion of a source text through these computer-aided tools cannot get a fully accurate version, so human editing is required at the same time.

In the translation stage, humans usually read through the article to get the gist and then underline the questionable spots for checking. At this moment, the tools that humans use tend to be bilingual dictionaries, monolingual dictionaries, specialized dictionaries, thesauruses and encyclopedias. On occasion, online surfing for related information is an additional device. In the case of MT, based on advanced computational linguistic analysis, MT engines linguistically process the source document to create a translation within seconds. Modern terminology managers like Multiterm, Termwatch, Termstar and others, beneficially embedded in the MT tools, provide the function of mapping source to target terminology in one-to-one correspondence for users to check. Thus, already translated terms stored in the term bank through the fuzzy match or exact match may be inserted into the target document without the need to re-type the terms.

Additionally, the translation memory (TM) system may be used to assist automated translation. The huge amount of translated texts (i.e., corpus) with their corresponding source texts in the form of bi-lingual entries are stored in the TM system for later use on a sentence-by-sentence or portion-of-a sentence basis. However, generally viewed, 20-50% or more of a document will require manual translation. Thus, the remaining un-translated sentences where no perfect match is found in the sentence memory (TM) are sent to the MT system for automatic translation.

In the post-translation stage, human translators do post-editing by checking the incorrect prepositions, articles, pronouns, verb tenses, punctuation, etc. The MT application cannot do without the post-editing that focuses on the revision of semantically absurd translations. In most cases, supplementary translation of missing words and revision of syntactic and semantic errors are undertaken. Computer-based tools provided for post-editing may help, such as spelling and grammar checkers (e.g., Word Grammar Checker and WinProof Grammar Checker).

COMPLEMNETARY RELEVANCE OF MT TO HT

From the above illustration, it is inferred that MT and HT methods both have their inherent strengths and shortcomings or limitations. First, concerning the translation process, the dynamic and flexible adaptation in HT is what computers cannot achieve, but computers process texts rapidly and show consistency in terminology. Second, texts that include intercultural information are most effectively handled by humans, while the MT method dominates in the translation of vast amounts of technical text. Finally, CAT tools such as the TM system and the translator's workstation are labor-saving devices that can increase productivity and quality.

With the limited semantic information and insufficient contextual analysis of MT systems, a sentence with a homograph creates difficulties for MT output and thus requires human translators to revise and clarify it. For example, in the sentence with the homograph "live"—"She wants the program to be broadcast live, so it will attract a wider audience," MT systems render them as follows (to cite two instances produced by Dr. Eye 2001 and TransWhiz 6.0):

3. (a) 她想要程式是廣播生活(居住)，所以它(這)將吸引更廣(寬)的聽眾。
(b) 她想要計劃當廣播生活(居住)，所以它(這)將吸引更廣(寬)的聽眾。

The logic in the MT output does not make sense, but human translators can immediately discern the root problem based on the contextual meaning so that the MT draft may be revised.

MT systems produce the output in accordance with what is input in its entirety without any lexical modification. No wonder that the MT output gives one a mechanical feeling, like a body with flesh but without spirit and soul. For example, in translating the sentence "*The two coffee shops are ready to be subject to the zero-sum struggle for domination,*" the phrasal verb "be subject to" may be replaced with another verb "develop," then the Chinese translation would be tailored locally. However, MT systems cannot alter original expressions based on the principle of lexical condensation, so that the direct word-to-word literal translation sounds strange to a native speaker of Chinese. Compare the output of MT systems (2) and the appropriate human translation (1):

(1)兩家咖啡店即將展開零和爭霸戰。
(2)兩家咖啡店即將受制/受限於零和爭霸戰。

Thus viewed, MT systems cannot make sophisticated judgements based on the limited storage of knowledge and information in the databanks. Furthermore, the MT parser is confined to mechanical sentence-bound analysis without contextual considerations. Therefore, MT needs human translators to evaluate the inter-sentential relations to decide the correct contextual meaning that affects the appropriate analysis of semantic features and syntactic structures. This accounts for the better lexical and syntactic transfer in HT. Furthermore, MT systems cannot automatically modify poorly written source texts (ST) by revising the misspelled words or grammatical errors originally found in the ST. However, given the gist from the MT draft, less competent human translators usually find the task of revising MT drafts much easier than doing translation alone from scratch.

Concerning the texts used, current MT efforts can attain the level of syntactic and semantic transfer, but fail to achieve a high level of intercultural exchange. Therefore, only human translators excel in literary translation by decoding the specific cultural patterns/messages in the source text and then encoding it with the alternative cultural patterns/messages intelligible and acceptable to the audience in the target language culture. Under these circumstances, to share the workload of human translators, the non-literary translation, in particular technical documentation, may be assigned to computers. This has led to increased productivity and decreased costs particularly for the translation of manuals that bear 30% repetition of previously translated text of a similar topic or subject.

To summarize, for certain types of translation tasks, HT is the most appropriate choice. On the other hand, what human translators cannot achieve in terms of productivity, rapid word lookup and consistency in terminology, can be provided by MT systems. As such, the relationship between MT and HT may be defined as a good partnership instead of a conflict.

MT AS A USEFUL AID TO HT

In comparing the tools used in MT and HT, MT systems and their extended CAT technology demonstrate some advantages over the HT method. A variety of MT tools have been produced as a specific aid to HT and they are in different stages of R & D. These tools provide various benefits for business users, professional translators and the general public. Examples of these tools are shown in Figure 1.

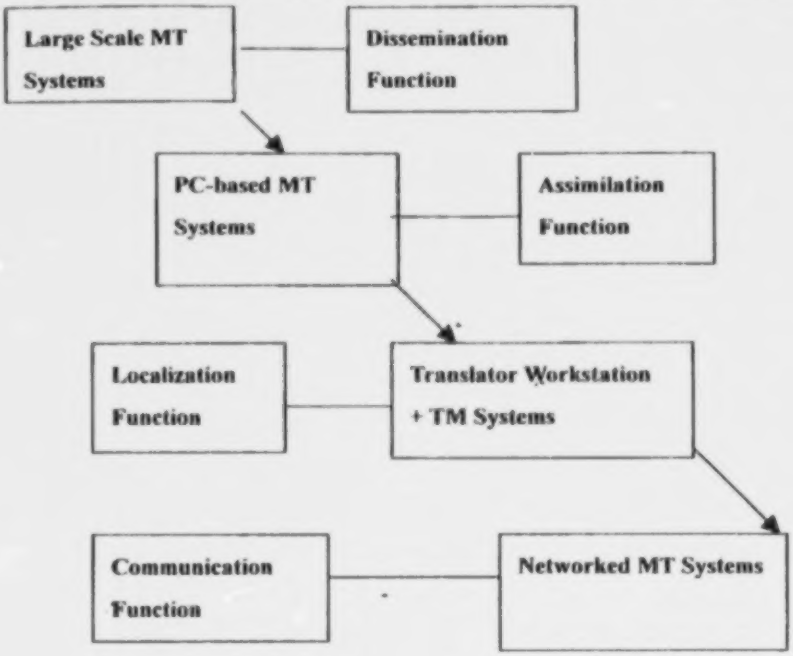
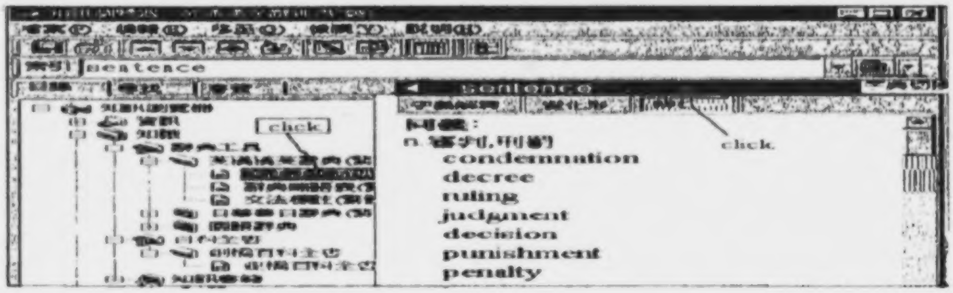

Large Scale MT Systems
Dissemination Function
PC-based MT Systems
Assimilation Function
Localization Function
Translator Workstation + TM Systems
Communication Function
Networked MT Systems

Figure 1
Various Functions of MT Systems

Early large scale MT systems developed in the 1970s are used to translate domain-specific texts with restrictive changes in lexical items and syntactic structures. For example, Systran has been used at Xerox for the translation of English documentation into multiple languages with the aims of a reduction in costs and improved clarity of communication. And there was a successful use of the Weidner system at Perkins Engines to translate technical documentation. To promote the quality of the MT outputs in the above two cases, pre-editing was undertaken to control the vocabulary and syntax of the source texts, leading to a reduction in post-editing costs (see Hutchins, 2001). Although the pre-editing and post-editing require time and money, MT application remains cost-effective when vast amounts of technical translation are urgently needed and no human translators with the necessary technical knowledge are available. In brief, the early large-scale MT systems are applied when the input language is controlled and the output is heavily revised for the purpose of information dissemination.

In the 1980s, PC-based MT systems made their debut in the global market. Different from the mainframe systems preferred by organizations or industries for information dissemination in the 1950s, PC-based MT systems are mainly used by individuals for information gathering, and by in-house or freelance translators for determining the gist of a piece of writing. Having screened the MT drafts, users may decide which parts need further translation by humans. To these users, the translation quality of the MT drafts is of less importance than the comprehension of the gist of the context of the source text (see the appendix for more information). Moreover, MT systems provide the lexical corpus of synonyms, antonyms and varied forms of words (Figure 2).



condemnation
decree
ruling
judgment
decision
punishment
penalty

Figure 2
The Interface and the Outcome of the Lexical Corpus of a MT System

In the 1990s, workstations for the commercial translator like the Trados Workbench, the IBM Translation Manager and the STAR Transit workstation appeared to foster the localization of computer software. These workstations combine text-processing facilities, desktop printing and terminology management tools. They are added later to translation memories to provide a crucial advantage to the professional translator for the translation of scientific-technical documents (e.g., user manual). A technical manual needs to be produced in several different languages as soon as the new product is ready to be launched into the international market. The manual is often highly repetitive from one product version to the next with only a few parts needing to be re-translated. Consequently, it is beneficial to use the translation memory system (TM system) to search the already translated parts in translation memories and then insert the exactly or fuzzily matched parts into the target text. Moreover, a terminological management tool is provided for easier consultation or post-editing. Figure 3 shows how a translator's workstation, based on the Behavior Translation Manager (BTM) and the Behavior Machine Translation (BMT) designed by Taiwan's Behavior Design Corporation (BDC), demonstrates the source text, the MT output, the TM search and specialized dictionaries on the same interface for the translator to do the post-editing.

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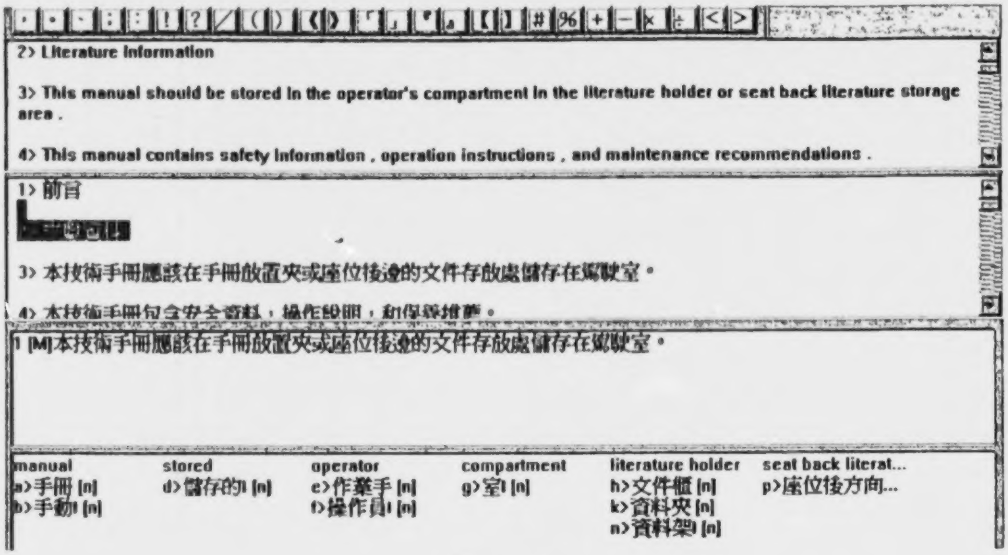

2> Literature Information

3> This manual should be stored in the operator's compartment in the literature holder or seat back literature storage area .

4> This manual contains safety information , operation instructions , and maintenance recommendations .

1> 前言

[illegible]

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4> 本技術手冊包含安全資料，操作說明，和保養措施。

1 [M]本技術手冊應該在手冊放置夾或座位後邊的文件存放處儲存在駕駛室。

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a>手冊 [n]	d>儲存的I [n]	e>作業手 [n]	g>室I [n]	h>文件櫃 [n]	p>座位後方向...
b>手動I [n]		f>操作員I [n]		k>資料夾 [n]	
				n>資料架I [n]	

Figure 3

An Instance of the Translator's Workstation Provided by BDC

The use of the workstation has enabled professional translators to increase productivity and improve consistency and quality as the project manager, Miss Cheng, assured this author, who visited her on July 24, 2001. Miss Cheng also mentioned that clients paid less as fuzzy matches increased and the overall cost of translation was reduced.

The growth of global telecommunication networks and the Internet has contributed to an increasing demand for instant or real-time translation of electronic mail, web-posted articles or "chatroom" conversations in many different languages. This need is evidenced on the intra-organizational scale and on the inter-organizational scale. In some global organizations or international corporations, specific MT/CAT systems have been tailored and developed to translate e-mail messages, instant messaging notes and internal documents from the employees of different nationalities for the purpose of bridging the language gap among the working staff and facilitating information exchange. For example, MT-enabled portals are added to networked MT systems to achieve instant web-page translation. This capability of real-time communication across countries can never be accomplished by human translators.

MT systems cannot be applied to translate all types of texts. Nor can they thoroughly resolve aforementioned lexical and syntactic ambiguities. Still they attract users with the reported functions of instant website translation, information scanning and real-time communication. Given the advantages mentioned previously, interactive collaboration between MT/CAT and HT may serve as an effective solution to the

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drawbacks embedded in MT and HT methods.

A ROPOSED HYBRID MT-AND-HT LEARNING SCHEME

It is true that MT systems cannot be functionally complete without the assistance of humans. While MT is claimed as an aid to HT, HT is in turn an equally important aid to MT. As such, a formula of the hybrid MT-and-HT scheme is proposed as a part of an existing translation program listed below:

Formula: Pre-editing Strategies (HT) + Translator's Workstation (text processing and terminology management) + MT-&-TM System + Post-editing Strategies (HT)

As this formula is increasingly accepted as the worldwide application mode in the translation industry, it is time for translation instructors to integrate it as a significant component into the unaided HT teaching context. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that this MT+HT learning scheme is only appropriate for the translation of technical and domain-specific texts. Instructors have to be cautious in the choice of teaching materials. As for the translation of general texts, the use of the conventional HT would be preferred. Another point worth our attention is that a theoretical introduction to HT and an exploration between culture and language must be preserved. It is suggested that hands-on experience with MT/CAT systems and the learning of pre-editing and post-editing strategies be integrated into the practice of HT. In short, a comprehensive module involving the recompiling of HT and MT components may look like the one found in Figure 4:

Conventional HT-Based Components	Modernized MT-Enabled Components
An Introduction to Translation Theories	An Introduction to MT Theories
Comparative Differences between English and Chinese	The Translator's Workstation (OCR/ICR/OMR and various desktop publishing (DTP) systems, Term-Management Systems)
Translation Strategies	Hands-on Practice with MT + TM Systems
Manual Translation Drills & Activities	Principles of Pre-editing (How to paraphrase the source text with controlled language)
A Study of Culture and Language	Principles of Post-editing (How to localize and naturalize inappropriate MT-specific language)

Figure 4

A Comprehensive MT+HT Learning Module

The proposed module is just one example based on the organizing principles of theoretical exploration, linguistic practice and technological experience of MT/CAT systems, part of which I have applied to my translation teaching and that has been favored by the majority of students. To be sure, the proposed components may be customized to meet different students' needs, linguistic competence, computational knowledge and the school's computational environment.

Theoretically viewed, it is necessary to inform students of the complimentary relationship between HT and MT in terms of different functions, strategies and tools. Comparative analysis of HT-specific translation strategies and MT-specific editing strategies, in terms of their differences rather than similarities, is of great significance. Concrete examples should be given by taking user manuals or domain-specific texts as the source texts for MT and culture-specific texts as the source texts for HT. Students are shown how the technical texts prior to the MT application are converted into a kind of sublanguage or controlled language with restricted vocabulary and simplified sentence structures. Words with multiple meanings, verbal phrases, long sentences with wh-clauses, passive forms and acronyms, to cite a few, are replaced with a word with a single meaning, strong verbs, short sentences, active forms and full names respectively. This conversion enables the computer program to have an easier time with processing and handling. HT is a different case where direct code-switching or inter-lingual and inter-cultural transfer, followed by the localization step, is required.

In the case of MT, it is also very important to use post-editing strategies to check if the crude MT draft is pragmatically and semantically acceptable in the target language culture and compatible with domain-specific linguistic structures and expressions. Students need to be aware that the current MT systems available in Taiwan's local market are incapable of satisfactorily handling time markers, wh-clauses, compounds, prepositions and word order. Thus, teaching various strategies for either MT or HT helps inform students of the decision-making nature of the translation process.

For the linguistic aspect, ordinary practice with MT-enabled instant word lookup and extensive learning from the lexical corpus helps increase students' vocabulary power. And the function of instant entire-sentence translation provides students with the opportunity of error analysis and then helps them to consolidate grammatical concepts. Concerning technological exposure, focuses vary depending on the computer facilities available in different educational settings. If financial support is limited, it is sufficient to let students have hands-on experience with TransWhiz systems that offer an array of functions such as artificial-intelligent MT + TM, instant bi-directional dictionary lookup, expandable dictionary (adding new words and altering definitions) and Internet web page translation. These technology-enabled functions integrated into the pure unaided HT learning program are conducive to carrying out several objectives in the theoretical, linguistic and technological aspects as shown below:

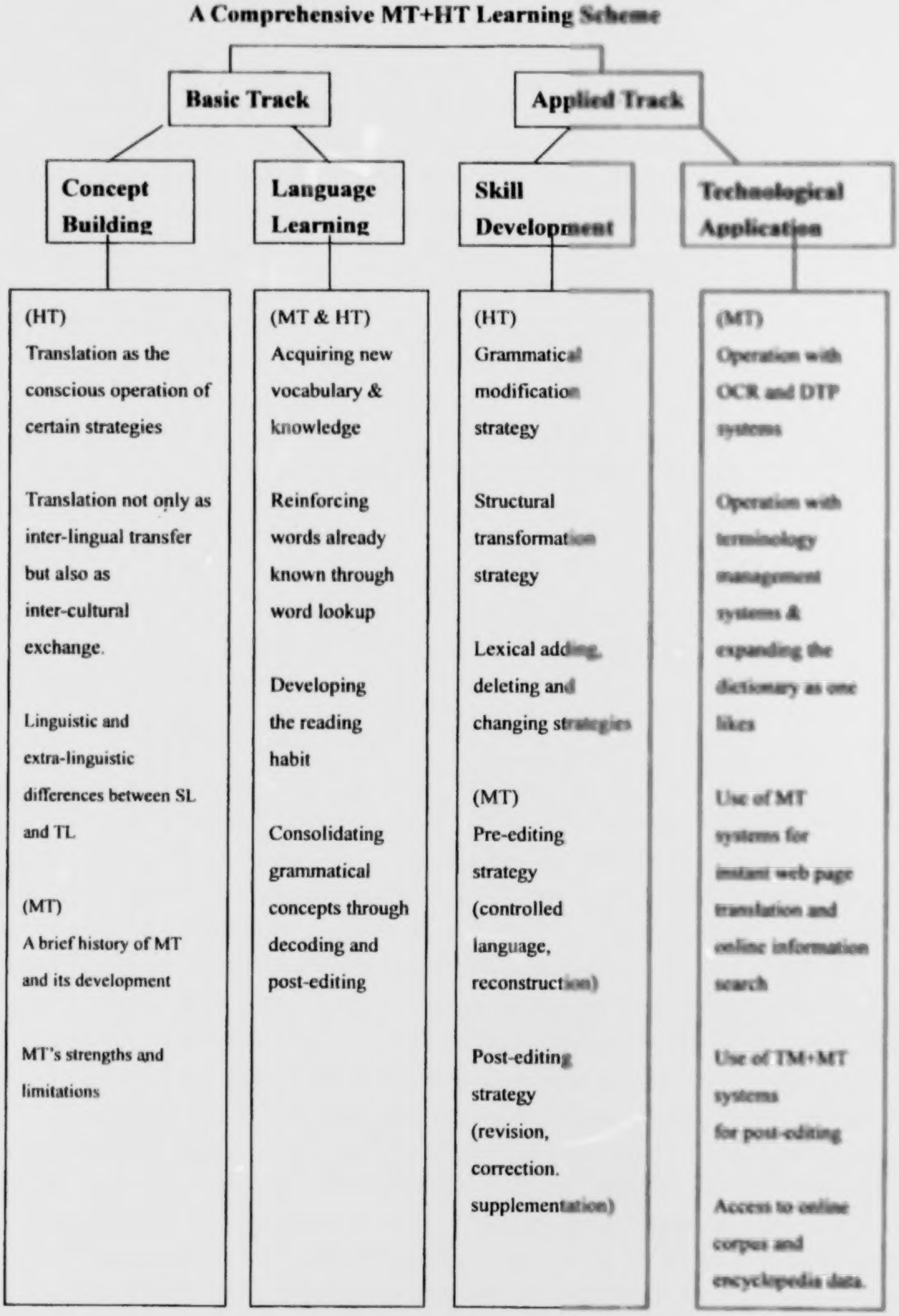
A Comprehensive MT+HT Learning Scheme
Basic Track
Applied Track
Concept Building
Language Learning
Skill Development
Technological Application
(HT)
Translation as the conscious operation of certain strategies
Translation not only as inter-lingual transfer but also as inter-cultural exchange.
Linguistic and extra-linguistic differences between SL and TL
(MT)
A brief history of MT and its development
MT's strengths and limitations
(MT & HT)
Acquiring new vocabulary & knowledge
Reinforcing words already known through word lookup
Developing the reading habit
Consolidating grammatical concepts through decoding and post-editing
(HT)
Grammatical modification strategy
Structural transformation strategy
Lexical adding, deleting and changing strategies
(MT)
Pre-editing strategy (controlled language, reconstruction)
Post-editing strategy (revision, correction, supplementation)
(MT)
Operation with OCR and DTP systems
Operation with terminology management systems & expanding the dictionary as one likes
Use of MT systems for instant web page translation and online information search
Use of TM+MT systems for post-editing
Access to online corpus and encyclopedia data.

Figure 5
A Comprehensive MT-and-HT Learning Scheme

Nonetheless, suspicion inevitably arises as to whether the MT output creates confusion for a not-quite-skilled learner of translation. This worry is justified because of the low quality of the raw MT output. Thus, an MT-specific course is recommended for advanced-level EFL students who have the capability of doing pre/post-MT editing. With an ambition to be professional translators in the future, they need to know MT/CAT applications.

CONCLUSION

To claim that MT systems work as an aid to HT is not to devalue the status of HT. Rather, it stresses the potential of their complementary collaboration to open up a new dimension of translation learning. In moving into the cyberage, humans no longer have justifiable reasons for the stubborn rejection of new translation technology that may reduce time and costs if appropriately used. This is particularly true for technical translation. Critics can be assured that MT works, but within limits.

In view of MT-enabled assistance, translation instructors are expected to modify and tailor their teaching to the trends of translation technology so as to equip students with the basic knowledge and skills required by the future MT/CAT-enabled professional environment. Actually, the implementation of a hybrid MT-&-HT learning scheme may modernize the content of existing translation programs and help relieve students' nightmarish anxiety in doing translation with a limited background. More importantly, it helps to avoid the tedious consultation of heavy reference books or dictionaries. As such, the collaborative and complementary relationship between MT and HT proves to be of much value in the enforcement of a comprehensive MT-and-HT curriculum either for academic training or for the future good of the translation industry.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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機器翻譯與人工翻譯之互補關係：理論探究

摘要

本文旨在討論機器翻譯與人工翻譯之互補關係。作者就兩者之間的翻譯過程、教科書種類與翻譯工具等進行探究；人工與機器翻譯之差異性，有助於說明兩者間合作的潛在利益。為了使讀者更瞭解機器翻譯，作者將論述其歷史梗概，然後再引用實例說明機器翻譯與人工翻譯之互補作用。作者所提出的人工與機器合併之學習架構，乃是希望達成理念、語言與技術三方面之教學目的。綜而言之，透過人工與機器整合之翻譯學習，可使得學生具備現代翻譯家應有的知識與技能，並於網路世紀的國際翻譯市場中，得到更好的就業機會。

關鍵字：人工與機器整合之翻譯學習 機器翻譯 人工翻譯
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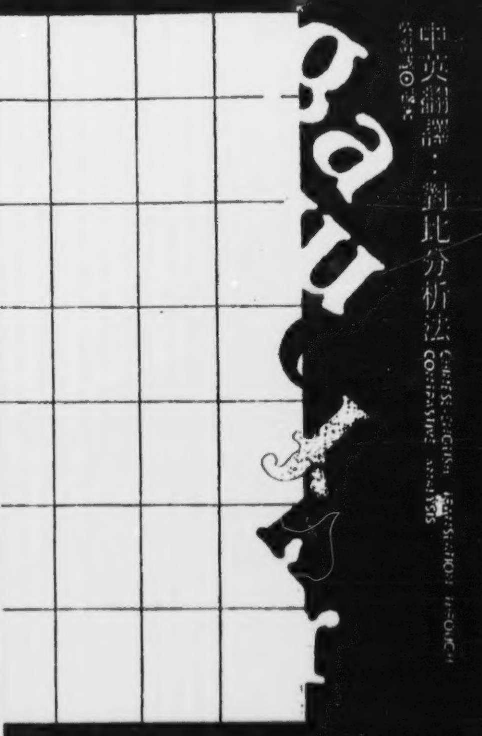
中英翻譯：對比分析法


中英翻譯：對比分析法 CHINESE-ENGLISH TRANSLATION THROUGH CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS
吳潛誠◎著

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本書從對比分析觀點，探討中英文表達方式的基本差異，從而歸納出正確的翻譯原則與技巧，以協助譯者避免譯出中式英文及英式中文，並使譯文合乎該譯文的習慣用法，而成爲道地的中英文。

本書側重實際的翻譯原則、技巧；翻譯理論則點到爲止。譯例大致上以高中、大學程度爲編撰對象，避免特異冷僻的例句，以廣泛應用爲原則。

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英語教學

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《英語教學》(*English Teaching & Learning*)為學術性刊物，旨在鼓勵英語教學研究、促進學術及經驗交流、並提升英語教學水準。凡有關國內外實證性英語教學研究成果及理論之探討或評介、嶄新具創意之教學法介紹、成功教學經驗分享、課程研發、課程評量、教材評量、師資培育及其他與英語教學相關議題（如雙語教育、心理語言學、社會語言學、外語習得等）之研究報告，均歡迎投稿。

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在地性的政治：
全球化、新興英文與英語教學的文化反思

莊坤良

國立台灣師範大學

摘要

全球化過份強調其普世性，反而忽略了在地性的重要。這篇文章旨在論證在地主體性對全球文化與英語發展的建構性影響。論文分四部份：首先說明全球與在地的互相辯證關係，並指出全球的在地化與在地的全球化促成文化雜化的事實。第二，以後殖民的角度來檢視新興英語的雜化本質，並以此解構標準英語的迷思。第三，探討全球化下的英語教材與教法，論述在地性的文化主體對英語教學的啟示。第四，回到台灣的場域，探討全球英語教學的在地因應之道。

關鍵詞：全球化　在地性　主體性　文化雜化　新興英文　教材與教法

壹、全球化與在地化

全球化已經成為一個國人耳熟能詳的「常識」(common sense)。因為是常識，所以許多有關全球化的觀念或議題，也被視為理所當然。但同時也習而不察，全球化反而遭到諸多的誤解或誤導。全球化企圖透過全球資源共享、文化流通、與經濟利益均沾的原則來營造一個未來的理想世界，但它也代表全球文化同質化（homogenization）的一個趨勢。現在，「追求全球化」（going global）已經變成當前最全球化的現象。但是當全球性（globality）的價值被過份強調成為共識之後，全球化的另一個不可或缺的面向-- 在地性（locality）-- 反而被忽視了。面對以西化為主的全球化霸權，在地性代表一種主體、抗拒、顛覆的力量，但這種力量卻在全球化的大纛之下，被有意或無意的妖魔化（demonization），使得人們失去對全球化進行反思的自省能力。

全球化的運作延續西方啟蒙和現代性的思維，建構一種以西方為中心，非西方為邊陲的權力關係。西方高唱市場經濟及貿易自由，認定全球化有利於世界資源的開發與利用，但是這種一廂情願，不顧及非西方世界感受的強勢作風，對世界的其他地區形成一種「由上而下」（top-down）的宰制性霸權，使得全球化變成「西化」或「美國化」的同義字。

傅柯說「有權力就有抗拒」(Foucault, 1980, p.95)。西方全球化的霸權必然也面臨來自非西方世界的反全球化、反霸權的抗拒。非西方國家面對全球化強大

的西化/同化壓力，擔憂自己的傳統文化遭到滅絕的危險，本能地激發起本土化的抗拒意識。這種抗拒，反映了後殖民時期在地、邊陲、少數、弱勢民族的文化及主體建構意識的自覺。

但是這種全球與在地二元對立的思考，未能關照全球化可能醞釀的多元雜化（hybridization）傾向，反而因文化同化或文化差異的緊張關係而呈現一種對全球化的普遍焦慮。全球化與在地化的關係也被簡化為霸權與抗拒、同質化與異質性、全球主義與民族主義、或零與和的對抗。事實上，在地性，不假外求，本來就蘊存在全球性當中。全球與本土具有一種共生的結構，一種互相流動、互相翻譯的特性。全球化以多元差異的在地文化作為活水源頭，本土化也因開放自我迎納全球化的挑戰而激發更多的文化能量與創意，進而豐富全球化的文化內涵。二者互相建構，因此沒有純粹的全球化，也沒有純粹的本土化，有的只是二者不斷互相越界雜化的過程。

文化人類學家認為，人類因各種不同的理由遷徙，自然也帶動文化的越界旅行，因此文化總已是雜化的。不論是全球化或是本土化，二者的文化流動，很自然地會在雙方的越界對話的過程中創造出一個新的、動態的、雜化的「第三空間」（Bhabha, 1994）。當代的許多文化研究學者在論「文化再現」（cultural representation）時都說，文化認同是生成（becoming）的過程，不是先驗的存有（being）。換言之，任何對全球化或本土化進行本質主義式的堅持或眷戀的行動，都是偏離現實，不切實際的狂熱。反過來說，「第三空間」裡全球與地方互動的過程才是我們要關注的重點。

英國社會學家羅伯生（Roland Robertson）(1997)為了突顯這種全球與地方的文化雜化的傾向，就以日本貿易行銷策略「土著化」（dochakuka），即所謂「因應地方的特殊文化，必須將全球商品加以在地化」（p.28）的主張，將“global”與“local”兩個英文字合為一個新的英文單字的“glocal”，以此彰顯全球與地方的共構關係。我們也可以拿羅伯生的話來做反向推延，將“local”與“global”兩字依序結合成“lobal”一詞，來說明藉創意行銷，地方也可以將在地文化推向全球。但是不論是全球的在地化（glocalization）或在地的全球化（lobalization），兩者都說明了全球與在地具有互為主體、互相雜化的本質。

雖然全球文化與在地文化具有互相雜化的傾向，但是我們也不能就此一廂情願地擁抱雜化，並以其作為解決認同問題的最終辦法。羅伯生的主張雖然指出全球與地方的雜化關係，但也不免有美化「雜化」之處。事實上，雜化並不是一半全球與一半地方的組合，它涉及兩邊之間不平等的權力關係。皮特斯（Jan Nederveen Pieterse）(1997)把雜化分為兩種：一是向中心傾斜的「同化型雜化」（assimilationist hybridity），也就是輕視在地，仰慕全球，並向霸權學舌式的文化認同觀。另一種是「顛覆式雜化」（destabilizing hybridity），以解構中心經典，並建構在地文化主體為主調的雜化(p.56-57)。前者認同強勢文化，並心甘情願的臣服，雖有與全球文化同步的虛榮，但也有導致一己文化認同錯亂之危；後者是以己身出發，迎納外來異質元素，並將其轉化成為文化更新的能量。這兩種不同

的雜化型態，因為主體位置的差異而有截然不同的認知與結果。換言之，雜化的運作無法脫離權力（power）機制的影響。因此面對全球化，我們反而更要謹慎，對雜化的機制與運作保持警戒與批判。否則，一旦雜化被「物化」，在地的主體性也會隨之喪失；弱勢的在地文化，不惟失去抗拒全球化的宰制力量，而且有再次被收編、被同化的危險。

貳、後殖民英文

全球化與本土化的互相含融，促成文化雜化，但雜化也必須以在地的文化主體為出發點。語言伴隨文化，它的形成也是雜化的過程。以當代英語為例，從大英帝國的興起與隕落，到當前美國的統領全球，英語的發展也歷經全球化、在地化、與混雜化的的過程。一九八九年，艾胥克拉福特(Bill Ashcroft)出版『帝國反撲』（The Empire Writes Back）一書指出，隨著大英帝國的瓦解，前殖民者所使用的英語也面臨一個新的改變。過去代表國家、權威、大寫、標準、正統的English，逐漸被小寫、在地、及複數的 englishes 所取代。也就是說，English 在成為後殖民新興國家的官方語言之後，因反映在地的特殊文化情境，而發展出具有本土特色的新英語，這些多元在地化的轉變，改變了我們對傳統英語文書寫與研究的認知。艾胥克拉福特就指出，後殖民的書寫以兩種不同的策略分進合擊，以同時進行解殖民（de-colonization）與後殖民主體重建的文化工程：第一種是「拒絕」（abrogation），第二種是「挪用」（appropriation）：

> Abrogation is a refusal of the categories of the imperial culture, its aesthetic, its illusory standard of normative or 'usage', and its assumption of a traditional and fixed meaning 'inscribed' in the words… Appropriation is the process by which the language is taken and made to 'bear the burden of one's own experience… This literature is therefore always written out of the tension between the abrogation of the received English which speaks from the center, and the act of appropriation which brings it under the influence of vernacular tongue, the complex of speech habits which characterize the local language…. (Ashcroft, 1989, p.38-39)

這個兩手策略，一面顛覆以英國/英文（English）為中心的霸權，一面借用「挪用」的政治，彰顯以被殖民者為主體的新書寫行動。這種轉變宣告傳統英語的式微，也預告新興英文的到來。傳統的"English literature"，在眾多殖民地的新英語文學興起之後，也為"Literature in english(es)所取代（Raley, 1999, p.67）。換言之，在當代後殖民情境下，英國人的英語（English）作為一種溝通的工具，也只是眾多英語（englishes）的一支而已。後殖民的書寫雖然沿用前殖民者的語言，但「挪用」的目的，在於表現因地置宜、凸顯文化差異，以及主體自立的精神。以印度

詩人 Raja Rao 的話來說，使用這種後殖民語言的目的是要 "to convey in a language that is not one's own the spirit that is one's own" (qtd. in Ashcroft, 1989, p.39)。從另一個角度來說，殖民地作家以英文寫作，但是他們的語言經過接收（adopt）、調適（adapt）、活用（adept）等不同階段轉化，早已和殖民者的英文，在語法、語彙及語用上有了明顯的差別，這種新的雜化英文，經過時間的累積，也有別於英美帝國的英文，已經成了本土的新語言，以這樣的文字書寫的在地故事，自然就成了後殖民文學。後殖民文學的出現，改變了當前英語世界的語文研究風向與潮流．英美兩國以外地區國家以英語書寫的後殖民文學，普獲世人注目；美國，作為一個移民國家，其境內「少數論述」（minority discourse）的書寫，也與傳統經典文學的研究，分庭抗禮，這些轉變都是過去所無法想像的局面。

大英帝國瓦解之後，後殖民英語也隨新國家的獨立，擴散成具有國際性、全球性的語言。但是英語的擴散，並未形成一種同質（homogeneous）語言的普世霸權。相反地，因在地主體意識的覺醒，反而促成更多本土異質（heterogeneous）聲音的解放。後殖民的遷徙離散（diasporic）經驗也昭告我們，英語在走向全球越界旅行的同時，也必然會在日常生活的實踐當中，透過模擬與挪用的中介進行在地化的轉變，而成為新的地方或民族語言。

因此，英語做為一種接合全球與地方的國際語言，它的形成總已是一種跨文化、雜化、在地化的過程。撰寫《魔鬼詩篇》（The Satanic Verses）一書而遭到回教誅殺令的印度裔英國作家魯西迪（Salman Rushdie）對文化旅行與語言在地化現象有許多精闢的觀察。在《想像家園》（Imaginary Homelands）這本評論集中，魯西迪以己身的後殖民遷徙離散經驗來論斷現代人的全球移動現象，並讚揚文化因雜化而不斷創新：

> The Satanic Verses celebrates hybridity, impurity, intermingling, the transformation that comes of new and unexpected combinations of human beings, cultures, ideas, politics, movies, songs. It rejoices in mongrelization and fears the absolution of the Pure. Melange, hotchpotch, a bit of this and a bit of that is how newness enters the world, and I have tried to embrace it. (Rushdie, 1991, p.394)

魯西迪的這段話點出後殖民英語文學的精神，也就是透過雜化的政治，引進「新」（newness）的元素，使得文化或語言獲得新生。隨著文化的雜化旅行，新的英文也在不同的地方落地生根。這些新的語彙、語法或文化概念也反映地方文化特色，有些甚至回流到英美世界成為流行的用語。

根據聯合報最近的報導，目前全球約有三億八千萬人以英語為母語，有十億人正在學英語，全球人口有三分之一生活在英語的環境下，三分之二以英語為第二語言（聯合報 2002 年 4 月 5 日）。換言之，現在世界上以英語為第二語言的國家與人口，早已遠遠超過以英語為國語的國家。魯西迪就說 "The English language ceased to be the sole possession of the English some time ago"（Rushdie, 1991, p.70）。英語不屬於英國或美國，沒有任何國家可以宣稱是用英語的唯一所有權，它已經隨後殖民書寫進一步變成澳洲英語、紐西蘭英語、加拿大英語、南非英語、愛爾蘭英語、加勒比亞英語、南亞英語、或新加坡英語了。

魯西迪的話或許過於樂觀，未能探究語言變遷過程裡，錯綜複雜的的權力關係，但是他強調全球文化包容、創新的精神，這點倒是無庸置疑。雖然英語的全球化是個趨勢，但是後殖民國家的語言政策也不是全然的接納英語，許多後殖民作家們的書寫策略其實是擺盪在國際溝通與民族認同之間。以 John Skinner 的話來說，英語不是後殖民國家人民的母語，但是卻扮演了「後母語」（stepmother tongue）的角色（qtd. in Raley, 1999, p.67）。殖民地的人民並沒有佛洛伊德所發明的「戀母情結」（Oedipus complex），當然不可能有「戀後母情結」。但是殖民地人民失去自己的母親/母語之後，也只能用「惡毒」後母的話作為溝通書寫的工具。因此英語變成了 Ashis Nandy 所謂的「親密的敵人」（intimate enemy），令殖民地的人民又愛又恨（qtd. in Desai, 2000, p.533）。因此，後殖民作家對待英語的態度也不盡相同。

例如，非洲作家的瓦汀哥（Ngugi Wa Thiong'o）(1994)認為語言不只是單純的溝通工具，它還承載歷史文化、意識型態及價值觀。他有感於殖民語言所再現的非洲，脫離現實，充滿種族偏見，以致於非洲人無法建立正確的自我認同。尤其是學校教育使用英語壓倒本土語言的影響最大：

> In schools and universities our Kenyan languages…were associated with negative qualities of backwardness, underdevelopment, humiliation and punishment. We who went through that school system were meant to graduate with a hatred of the people and the culture and the values of the language of our daily humiliation and punishment. (p.451)

因此瓦汀哥放棄以英語寫作，改用自己的肯亞 Gikuyu 母語來書寫自己民族的文化歷史。但是這種強烈民族主義的觀點，因缺少廣大全球讀者的迴響，反而降低了其影響力。瓦汀哥為抗拒全球英語的文化同化力量，採取完全拒絕的策略，但這種過於僵化的「抗拒」，反而有將本土文化「純粹化」並使得自己面臨與全球文化隔離的危險。

另外一位非洲奈及利亞作家 Chinua Achebe 則認為語言是所有歷史經驗累積下來的結果，因此不需要排斥殖民語言，反而應該要「挪用」英文來書寫自己民族獨特的故事。他的第一本非洲後殖民小說《四分五裂》（Things Fall Apart）以英語撰寫，開啟風氣，激發一波波的後殖民文學書寫的風潮。他對用英文寫非洲充滿信心，但是也不認為非洲人可以或必須像土生的英國人一般地使用英語。他認為：

> The African writer should aim to use English in a way that brings out his message best without altering the language to the extent that its value as a medium of international exchange will be lost. He should aim at fashioning out an English which is at once universal and able to carry his peculiar experience. (Achebe, 1994, p.433)

Achebe 的寫作策略兼顧英語的全球溝通功能與本土文化認同，認為他的「新英語」有別於傳統的殖民英語，散發原鄉風味，可以適當表達自己的非洲經驗。

類似對英語的爭議也發生在愛爾蘭。愛爾蘭的語言學家兼愛爾蘭自由邦的第一任總統海德博士（Douglas Hyde）(1992)有感於愛爾蘭長期被英國殖民統治，傳統語言「蓋爾語」（the Gaelic language）快速流失，乃發起「去英國化」（De-Anglicization）運動，主張恢復蓋爾語作為愛爾蘭文化復興的第一步。其實「英國化」的語言教育本來就是殖民統治的重要政策。麥考徠（Thomas Macaulay）就說，對印度實施英國文學教育，目的在改造印度本土菁英，將其「英國化」，使其成為統治者的殖民工具：

> … to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern; a class of person, Indian in blood and color, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect. (qtd. in Desai, 2000, p.524)

殖民地的文學教育是「殖民教化」（civilizing mission）與同化的工具，經過這種教育的洗禮，殖民地的人民自然心甘情願的認賊作父，使自己變成殖民共犯，扮演一個自我壓迫者的尷尬角色，最後導致自己的文化認同分裂。海德博士有鑑於此，乃提出「去英國化」的主張。[1]

有別於海德博士全面「拒絕」（abrogation）的語言主張，愛爾蘭著名詩人葉慈（William Butler Yeats）則強調語言的工具性功能，採取一個比較務實的態度來「挪用」（appropriation）英語。他回應海德博士的主張，指出愛爾蘭語言運動不應該拘泥於形式，也就是說，重點不在要不要「去英國化」，而是在於如何以英語來傳達愛爾蘭的文化精神。他說：

> Is there then no hope for the de-anglicizing of our people? Can we not build a national tradition, a national literature which shall be none the less Irish in spirit from being English in language. (qtd. in Kiberd, 2001, p. 473)

經過數百年的殖民，英語早已融入愛爾蘭人的生活成為不可分割的本土文化一部

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[1] 雖然海德博士大力鼓吹復興「蓋爾語」的運動，但是反諷的是他的「去英國化」宣言，還是必須用英語來書寫。

份。愛爾蘭人的英語也自然參雜了英國與愛爾蘭的風土人情社會文化。葉慈肯定這種以本土為主體的書寫行動，並以此創作出許多精彩的傳世詩篇。

大英帝國隨著殖民地的獨立，已經不再是「日不落國」。二十世紀的美國起而代之，是當今世界一個「沒有殖民地的最大帝國」(Pease, 2000, p.203)。美國作為一個後殖民多種族的移民國家，境內仍有許多少數族裔，他們的政治處境仍處於「內部殖民」(internal colonization)的狀態。亞洲裔美國人、非洲裔美國人、拉丁裔美國人、和美洲印地安原住民構成國內少數族裔的圖譜，他們作為 United States of America 國族建構的一部份，“United” 這個字自然也隱含少數族裔對美國家文化語言的建構性影響。因此沒有所謂的純粹或標準的美語，因為美式英語「總已」(always already) 是一種不斷雜化的語言。

同樣的，純粹或標準的英語也是一種迷思。「標準英語」源自殖民主義，是殖民者統治廣大殖民地人民的手段之一，它意味著殖民政權不容挑戰或質疑的權威性 (authority) 和純正性 (authenticity)。其實從歷史來看，英語作為一種全球語言，本身也早已是雜化的語言。以英國文學之父喬叟為例，喬叟雖被尊為英國最本土的國家作家，但是他的作品，與當時的作家相比，卻是歸屬於國際派，因為他的英語書寫深受拉丁化、法蘭西化的影響。但反諷的是，他卻是今日英國正統文學的代表 (Moore, 2001)。換言之，英語作為一種本土國家 (national) 文學，卻「總已」是雜化、國際化了 (international)。

以上對非洲、愛爾蘭、美國和英國的討論，凸顯後殖民新興英文的雜化本質。但以在地性出發的文化主體意識，也必須兼顧語言的溝通功能與文化認同的象徵意義，才能走出標準英語的迷思，並釋放在地文化能量，豐富世界文化。

參、全球英語教材教法與在地主體性

全球化的政治凸顯全球文化與在地文化的雜化走向，後殖民新興英文則強化在地作家對新英語的「挪用」政治，他們共同涉及一個語言與文化認同的「在地性/主體性」議題。現在，隨著全球化、網路化的到來，英語已經變成一個全球語言。追求全球化，世界一片英語熱。英語系國家對英語的傳播及其所帶來的龐大商機，充滿期待。非英語系國家對英語的學習及其所代表的全球化魅力，展現無比的熱情。就在雙方殷切的投合之中，許多與語言文化相關的重要議題，反而淹沒在這片英語教與學的熱潮之中。我們有必要從上述對全球與地方、文化與語言，雜化與主體的討論，進一步來檢視全球英語教學的發展，並探討在全球化的風潮之下，在地英語教學的因應之道。

全球化以經濟資本的跨國流動為本，很自然的，也將全球的英語教學「商品化」。一如其他的高科技產業，英語教學也成為利機無限的商品。跨國英語教育機構，盛行於非英語系國家，成了另類的跨國大企業。以英美強國為中心所印行的教科書，透過商業包裝手法，強力向邊陲國家地域行銷。同時以英美社會情境為實踐場域所研發出的各式教學法，也隨著教科書的擴散，以及各大學教學學

程的研究與推廣，流傳於非英語系國家，成為主流權威的教學法。

以下將分別由教材與教法兩個面向來探討全球化對英語教學的影響。首先從教材來看，在全球行銷的策略下，全球英語圖書生產最大的特色即是普遍具有「一本通吃」的傾向。根據 John Gray 的說法，全球英語的編輯採取兩個基本策略：（一）、Inclusivity：這個策略是指儘量使用中性（non-sexist）的字，以避免性別歧視。例如，以 people 代替 mankind，以 chairperson 代替 chairman，以 young woman 代替 girl。（二）、Inappropriacy：出版社採取 PARSNIP（politics, alcohol, religion, sex, narcotics, isms, pork）六大禁忌的策略，避免因為文化差異可能導致的抗議或抵制（Gray, 2002）。經過這番「政治正確」的篩選，只留下最安全的題材，例如通俗文化、旅遊或節慶之類的「中性」文章。以這種方式編輯的書本，可以普遍為非英語國家的消費者所接受，出版社才能以最經濟的方式提高最大的銷售量，獲取最大的商品利益。

這樣以全球市場為導向「一本通吃」的書本編輯，不免有下列可能的缺點：首先，因為偏重市場經濟，書本的主要使用者學生的在地經驗反而被壓抑或忽略。但是無法反映在地生活的經驗，可能導致學生的認同感低落，這樣的全球教科書不但降低了學生學習的興趣，也連帶使得學習成效相對降低。第二，全球型的教科書採取「政治正確」的方式，刻意避免有爭議的文章，但這樣的選擇避重就輕，也相對剝奪學生學習分析事情的教育機會。因缺少批判性思考的訓練，學生自然也無法養成獨立判斷的能力。學英文成了鸚鵡學舌，除模仿英美強國的通俗享樂文化外，無法藉嚴肅的英文文章來磨練表達在地文化的意識。第三，排除在地聲音可能的介入及嚴肅議題的討論，全球英語教本最終淪為歌頌英美流行文化的宣傳手冊。因此，脫離殖民情境的第三世界人民，隨全球化的到來，有可能再次陷入一個英語帝國的文化殖民情境。雖然有些英美出版也瞭解到地方性的重要，因此以權宜的方式變更教材內容的時空背景，例如把倫敦改成台北，把西雅圖換成台南，以拉近全球與地方的距離。但這種效果有限，有時反而因格格不入，加大了雙方的疏離。無論如何，非英語系國家的英語教材總是聽不見在地的聲音。

缺少在地聲音的參與是全球英語教材的缺點。全球化的時代，英語書籍扮演一個全球與在地對話溝通的橋樑。橋樑意味著兩造之間雙向的文化來往，全球需要地方，地方也需要全球。因此理想的教科書應該兼顧全球與地方。Ingrid Freebairn 就針對此一缺失，提出運用現代科技的解決方案。他主張把所謂的「骨架書本」（skeleton coursebook）做成光碟片或放在網路上當作全球英語教本的基本資料（Gray, 2002）。教師可以根據在地的特殊文化情境，剔除不適宜教材，並增加與本地生活議題有關的文章，並考慮文章難易度，以滿足不同程度學生的需求。這種 DIY 的教材充分發揮以在地學生需求為導向的特性，具有因地制宜、個別化、多元化的優點。這種結合全球與地方的英語教科書，兼顧全球資訊流通與在地的文化主體，正好呼應羅伯生的 glocalization 文化主張，達到全球融入地方，地方參與全球的理想。

全球化除了在英語教材的選擇與編撰上反映在地的聲音外，對英語教法的

推動也必須將在地的文化因素納入考量。英美學界及出版社掌控語言教學的優勢，透過出版與學術機構的運作，除了向世界推銷全球英語書籍外，也同時建構了一個教法的「權威性」。一般人總以為，教材的選擇受制於不同文化與意識型態，必然有所偏頗，而教法應該是價值中立的，它純粹是一種教學技術的演示。這樣的想法，過於一廂情願。A. Suresh Canagarajah(2002)就說，

> Methods are cultural and ideological constructs with politico-economic consequences. Methods embody the social relations, forms of thinking and strategies of learning that are preferred by the circles that construct them. (p.135)

事實上，教學法的形成也是特定社會文化情境的產物。但是以全球英語為中心所發展出來的教學法，卻扮演著「普世性」(universal) 價值的角色，藉英美大國的語言優勢，向非英語系國家強力推銷，成為眾人模擬學步的主流教學策略。這種統一標準的教學法忽略在地的地理、歷史、風俗、人情的文化差異，以大一統的高姿態君臨天下，除了可能壓抑在地的、另類的教學思考與創意外，更可能將西方的單一價值強加在非西方的社群之上。這樣的強勢風格更可能倒因為果，認為全球中心的教學法如果成效不彰，原因是地方不能調整自我的學習模式以適應中心教法，完全漠視在地性在教學活動中所扮演的重要角色。

這種全球壓倒地方的教學法當然存有許多批判的空間。首先我們必須打破「最佳教法」的迷思。天底下沒有一種放諸四海皆準的教學法，事實上，同一種教法在不同的文化場域，也會有不同的結果。甚至在相同的文化場域，也會因為不同的老師和不同的學生，而有截然不同的教學成效。教室是一個充滿突發偶然、變動不拘的教學空間，任何的教法皆無法照本宣科地完全吻合原教學法的理念與程序步驟。換言之，這種「由上而下」、由中心到邊陲的全球教學法，必須加以在地化。教師首先必須揚棄全球方法掛帥的想法，進而發展一些「由下而上」的策略。教師可以把學生的集體與個別文化差異納入教學設計的考量之中，並以在地的角度出發，轉化中心教法，強化在地知識對教學法的正面價值，創造出最適合在地的教法。這樣的思維類似後現代或解構主義思想裡的「去中心化」(de-centering) 策略，當中心的宰制力量式微之後，地方的能量才能釋放出來。當中心的教法不再是唯一的標準，多元創新的在地教法也才能得到肯定。

這樣的論述質疑中心教法放諸四海皆準的正當性。A. Suresh Canagarajah (2002)就以自己在斯里蘭卡鄉下接受英語教師啟蒙的經驗，提出所謂的「後方法論情境法」(the postmethod conditon) (p.140)。鄉下教師以最貼近在地情境的方式，發展一己獨特的教法，因應在地學生的特殊需要，啟發學生學習英語的熱忱，其功效大於由中心移轉而來的制式教法。換言之，最佳的教法，從某一個角度而言，就是沒有固定的方法。

雖然沒有固定的教學方法，但是教學策略的選擇卻可能影響學習成效。在文

學理論裡有所謂「讀者反應理論」，強調讀者在閱讀活動中的主體性。此一理論主張，任何的閱讀行為必然涉及「作者-文本-讀者」三者之間的互動，意義的產生也必然是三者之間互相對立、衝突、妥協、融合與創造的過程。這三者孰輕孰重的問題則隨時代思潮演變而有不同的面貌。傳統的寫實主義或傳記式文學批評以作者為中心出發，認為作者是文本的書寫者，所以是意義的源頭。因此閱讀就是以作者為中心的詮釋行為，目的在重建創作者的本意。但是二十世紀初俄國形式主義（Russian Formalism）理論則主張：文本本身即是一自給自足的創作，它的意義來自文本內部之間的相互關係---例如情節的安排、角色的對比、觀點的陳述、或文字音韻的特殊排列---而不受制於作者的生平或歷史的變遷，也就是文本的意義來自文本而非作者。可是這種以文本掛帥的觀念到了後結構主義時期又被推翻。Roland Barthes (1987)在他著名的＜作者之死＞（The Death of the Author）的文章中就提出：文本的書寫一旦結束，它的詮釋活動便留待讀者來完成，也就與作者無關了。Barthes 視文本為一個多層次的開放空間，不同的文化意符（signifier）在此交會，而讀者介入文本的表意活動（signification），乃成了此一意識交會的中心。換言之，這種主張打破以作者與文本為中心的詮釋霸權，凸顯讀者作為閱讀主體的事實。

Barthes 的「去作者」主張，強化以讀者為中心的閱讀行為。讀者反應派批評家對這種主張也有許多不同的演繹。例如 Edmund Husserl 認為在閱讀的過程裡，讀者與作者的意識處於一種互相流動的狀態，因此意義是由雙方共同創造出來的。Wolfgan Iser 認為文本本身具有許多裂縫或空白，讀者在閱讀的過程裡必須不斷主動地進行補白(filling in the gaps)的工作，以便積極創造文本的意義。Hans Robert Jauss 則以「歷史視域」（Horizon of expectation）的觀點說明，一部文學作品不會以一陳不變的面貌出現在所有的歷史時期。換言之，讀者所處時代的文化思想、美學標準、道德判斷會影響讀者對該作品的詮釋。Stanley Fish 也說，在閱讀的過程中，讀者由主體出發，會不斷修正自己的看法來建構文本的意義。Norman Holland 和 David Bleich 以心理分析觀點指出，閱讀的最終目的是要去瞭解自己，並在閱讀過程中建構自己的認同，也就是藉由閱讀來發現自我，使閱讀成為自我成長的契機。[2] 綜合以上各家的說法，讀者反應的理論把讀者定義為主動的意義生產者，而不是被動的消費者。文本的意義並不是作者所施給的，它是讀者與作者意識交流、共同創造的產物。讀者閱讀的目的不在重建作者書寫文本時的「歷史意義」（meaning），因為它早已失落不可考。相反地，讀者必須依自己的知識、經驗、學養在閱讀中賦於文本新的「時代意義」（significance），並藉由這樣的閱讀不斷地尋求/創造/發明新的認同與價值。

讀者反應的理論也可以被轉化到課堂裡的教學活動，因為「教師-課本-學生」三者的互動關係也近似「作者-文本-讀者」的論述。教學活動的進行正是教師與

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[2] 以上有關讀者反應理論的討論請參見 Jane P. Tompkins(1980)所編的 *Reader-Response Criticism* 一書及 Raman Selden(1986)等所編的 *Contemporary Literary Theory: A Reader's Guide* 第三章。

學生透過課本的討論所形成的意識交流過程。教師舊經驗的傳承需要學生們的新經驗來補白，才能讓傳統產生新的時代意義。以學生為主體的思維在於啟發學生自立、自主、自信的學習精神。學生們對教學活動的參與，和伴隨學習而來的自我成長，決定了教學活動的成敗。

現今ESL教學裡的「溝通式教學法」（Communicative Approach）也修正了傳統上由教師擔任意義決定者的主張，改由以「學生為中心」的思考來設計教學活動（Taylor, 1987）。畢竟教學活動是因學生而存在，學生是整個教學活動的對象也是主體，學生的學習與成長才是教育的目的。因此根據不同的教學情境，我們要落實語言教室裡的民主化，讓學生參與教學策略的選擇，經過這種共同商訂（意識交流）的過程，必能找出最適當的教法。同時教師因為擺脫對中心教法的依賴，缺少立即可套用的教法，反而更能發揮創意，自訂教材，創新教法，將一己的在地經驗、知識、想像融入教學活動之中，以啟發學生努力學習。透過這種自主、民主意識的解放，地方教師自能體驗，好的教材教法不一定必須來自中心，在地知識文化介入教學活動反而扮演著更加關鍵的角色。就像全球教材的走向，英語的教法也必須融合全球知識與地方文化，才能反映全球化的人文精神，發揮英語教學的最大效益。

肆、英語教學在台灣的文化反思

隨著全球化腳步的加速到來，國人對英語也興起一股學習的熱潮。一般人相信，學好英語等同提高自己的全球競爭力，想要與美國人所主導的全球化分一杯羹的話，必須先學會和美國人說一樣的話。現在，小學已經正式將英語納入教學體制，中學裡英語是重要的必修科目，大專院校裡設有英語相關系所的學校已經超過一百五十所，體制外的本土或跨國公司經營主導的各式補習班的數目更是遠遠超過正式教育的學校單位。顯然英語的教與學已經引起全面普遍的重視：陳總統倡議把英語列入第二官方語言、行政院長把英語納入六年國建、大專院校考慮將托福或全民英檢成績列為畢業的必要條件、中央民代建議開放外國人到國民中小學教英語、台南市政府倡導倒垃圾學英語、非常百姓節衣縮食提早送小孩到美語補習班學英語，以免輸在學習的起跑點上。從中央到地方，從政府領導人員到基層百姓，全國上下染上一種英語焦慮症。

台灣雖然不是英美的殖民地，但是本土知識（份子）的生產也大都屈從於英美大國的知識論述標準。這種以西化為主的知識生產，缺乏在地的反思，免不了會影響國人的文化認同。君不見台灣多數的內閣閣員都擁有英美博士學位，政府的政策制度與思維也都仿自英美大國。同樣的，本地的英語教育在某個程度而言，仍然處在被英美殖民的狀態。從兒童英語教材的選用到各級英語教師的養成，都脫離不了英美主導性的影響。以兒童的英語教育為例，由於缺乏本地為主體的教材編撰，兒童英語教材大都直接取自英美各國。換言之，國家未來的主人翁在他們人格形塑的階段，已經全面接收全套的西方民謠、神話、傳說、歷史、

地理、文化價值和意識型態，使得他們在學作台灣人之前，早已是美國人或英國人了。同樣地，學院裡的研究，模仿西方理論，學舌論述，拾人牙慧，只要比國人更加西化，彷彿就是一種進步，一種自己是全球化的驕傲。後殖民學者 Ajjaz Ahmad 就批評，在全球化的體制下，缺少在地反思能力的知識份子正扮演著「學院資本主義的共犯」（qtd. in Desai, 2000, p.535）角色，未能為本地的文化深耕貢獻心力。

英語科是當前各級教育的顯學。從教師、學生、家長到公私立各級學校，全國上下都積極推動學習英語，並接受其所代表的文化價值。葛蘭西（Antonio Gramsci）在論「霸權」（hegemony）的運作時說，霸權具有一個兩面結構：它的運作除了有一半來自強勢政體的直接宰制外，另有一半是來自被宰制一方的「主動迎合」（active consent）宰制者的領導與權威（Hall, 1986）。國內現在的情況是強勢英語壓倒本土語言，大家迫不及待、心甘情願的接受英語及其所代表的文化霸權。台灣的英語情境與非洲、愛爾蘭等後殖民國家不同。台灣雖然沒有被英語國家殖民的經驗，但是積極認同英語文化之心卻強過許多後殖民國家。缺少在地反思的能力，迎合英語帝國的文化霸權，不但可能喪失一己的文化信心，也會對國家文化認同的形塑埋下負面影響的因子。

當然全球英語霸權的形成已經是不可抗拒的潮流，但以他者為師，我們可以學習後殖民文學，抒發在地的聲音，以便在全球化與主體建構之間尋求一個平衡點。我們可以仿效 Chinua Achebe 或葉慈「挪用」英語，說自己的故事，建構一己在全球化下的新文化主體。在實際運作的策略上，首先我們必須要打破「標準英語」的迷思。由於霸權使然或由於殖民心態，國人普遍認為英美兩國的英語才是標準英語。甚至於基於國力強弱或地區的選擇，美式英語的地位還高過英式英語。補習班聘任英語教師還以紐約口音或洛杉磯口音作為訴求。這樣以洋為貴的偏狹認知，多少否定了本土英語教師的地位與努力。事實上，在全球英語傳播的過程，也必然會發現全球英語不足以表達在地特殊的文化情境或人民感情，因此也會發明出專門表達本地特色的語法或語彙，例如新加坡的 Singlish。同理，可以預見的是，隨著英語教育的普及，在不久的將來台灣或中國也將出現 Taiglish 或 Chinglish 等不同風貌的英語。再則，在英語教材的選擇方面，我們應兼顧世界他地的文明，避免有意排除其它地區英語，以免窄化了全球化的多元視域。更重要的是，針對教材與教法的開發，我們要強化在地性的參與權利/力與文化主導力量。最後，要駕馭英語，而不為其所役。除了閱讀與接受英語資訊外，我們更要積極以英語來表達在地思維，以便在在地與全球的互相作用中，取得相對有利地位。文化意識或在地主體的問題，因為抽象或沒有迫切性，短期看不出其影響與重要性，容易被忽視。但文化的形成是點滴長流，必須建立一個健康的態度，慎重以對。

面對全球英語的文化霸權，全面跟進與盲目抗拒同樣愚昧。唯有透過在地、主體的自覺行動，才能在全球化當中尋得在地的生機。

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The Politics of Locality: Globalization, Postcolonial English, and the Cultural Reconsideration of English Teaching and Learning

Abstract

The current study on globalization has emphatically highlighted the homogeneous cultural forces of globality, and in one way or another has downplayed or ignored the participation of local factors in the fashioning of global cultures. This paper aims to bring to light from a different perspective the importance of locality by presenting a) how the dialectical relationship between globalization and localization has engendered global cultural hybridity; 2) how new "englishes" have emerged through the postcolonial appropriation of English; 3) how global English teaching and learning should be reexamined through the cultural politics of locality and subjectivity in this era of globalization.

Key Words: globalization, locality, hybridization, subjectivity,
the postmethod condition

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A Preliminary Study of English Conversation Instruction at Universities in Taiwan

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Abstract

This study investigated the teaching approaches of instructors who teach English Conversation in English/Foreign Languages Departments at universities in Taiwan. Via surveys sent to the conversation instructors in 16 different programs, information concerning the instructor's attitude toward the course, teaching objectives and pedagogy, and methods of evaluation was gathered and critically examined. It was found that most respondents had a positive experience teaching the course and were confident in their teaching approach. An indirect pedagogical approach was more commonly adopted than a direct approach as suggested by both the teaching materials and activities. Though some rising attention to conversation-related discourse and strategic competence was noted, grammatical and pronunciation accuracy and acquisition of vocabulary still received the greatest emphasis from the majority of the respondents in their instruction. Differences were also detected between Chinese and foreign teachers in their instructional experiences of and approaches to the course. Finally some suggestions are made for the ways the course can be more adequately taught as well as possible directions for future studies.

Key Words: English conversation, course design, teaching materials and methods, universities, Taiwan

INTRODUCTION

One of the major goals of the English/Foreign Language and Literature curricula in universities in Taiwan is to teach students how to communicate effectively and appropriately with native speakers in a diversity of situations. English Conversation class, as one means to this end, i.e., to improve specifically students' conversational ability, is offered on many college campuses. Despite its growing popularity, the conversation class is somewhat "an enigma in language teaching" (Richards, 1990). Both the content and teaching techniques of conversation classes vary widely. With respect to the content, choices and emphasis may be placed differently among talks actuating language functions, realizing transactional tasks, or establishing/maintaining social relationships. Regarding the instructional method, hybrids of techniques are utilized which may include dialogues, discussion, games, role-play, problem solving, oral presentation, grammar/pronunciation drills, etc. Despite the noble intention and good will of the instructor to help his/her students become eloquent conversationalists, a question is often left unanswered, i.e., how effectively can these teaching approaches possibly induce in language learners conversational competence required in real-life speaking situations, or how can a conversation class be taught so as to adequately prepare students for a seemingly commonplace yet indeed intricate and challenging task. But before that question can be answered, another question need be addressed pertaining to the issue of how the English Conversation course is currently taught at the tertiary educational level in Taiwan.

As an initial attempt, this research project aims to investigate the pedagogical approach of the English Conversation course currently adopted at universities in Taiwan, namely what is taught, and how and why it is taught. The findings this project derives can help shed light on how English conversation is conceptualized and taught by local teachers at the university level and examine how adequate some of the pedagogical conceptualizations and practices may be given the nature of the course and the characteristics of the learners.

RELEVANT LITERATURE

Literature directly concerning this research inquiry is at best scant, if not outright absent. In other words, no studies were found which investigate the status quo of the teaching approaches to the college-level English Conversation course in any specific geographical regions. The study of high school English Conversation classes in Taiwan conducted by Chang in 1993 was the only empirical study (1995) located which zeroed in on the pedagogical issues, yet it dealt with the teaching approach of the course at the secondary educational level, and is therefore of limited help to this project. In this regard, this research project is one of the first to explore the instructional approach of the English Conversation course at the collegiate level.

Meager as the research is on the actual pedagogy employed for the course English Conversation at a particular educational level, ample studies were found pertaining to discussions of English conversation as a form of spoken English and possible approaches/activities for teaching spoken English, including conversation courses. These studies of secondary relevancy to this project can generally be categorized into 1) discourse/conversation analysis studies (e.g., Brown & Yule, 1983a; Cook, 1989; Goffman, 1976; Gumperz, 1982; McCarthy, 1991; McLaughlin, 1984; Richards & Schmidt, 1983; Wardhaugh, 1985), 2) teaching of spoken English (e.g., Brown & Yule, 1983b; Brown, 1994; Bygate, 1987; Littlewood, 1992; Tarone &

Yule, 1989), and 3) teaching of English Conversation (e.g., Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992, 1994; Eckard & Kearny, 1981; Kaplan, 1997; Nolasco & Arthur, 1987; Richards, 1990; Sze, 1995). While the first type represents empirical studies or theoretical discussions of various microscopic features of the conversation discourse (e.g., adjacency pairs, turn-taking, repair, topic negotiation and maintenance, code-switching, opening and closing), the second type focuses its attention primarily on the application of the aforementioned discourse dimensions and the syntactic, lexical and phonological features of spoken language to oral English instruction. The third type of research directly relates to conversation instruction and thus is most helpful to the study. Literature pertaining to this type can be further grouped into general teaching principles/approaches (e.g., Richards, 1990; Sze, 1995), teaching materials or syllabus design (e.g., Keller & Warner 1976, 1979 on gambits; Siskin & Spinelli, 1987 on gambits and routines; DeCarrico & Natinger, 1993 on lexical phrases and communication strategies; Shih, 1986 on conversational politeness; Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992; 1994 on course content and rationale), classroom techniques (e.g., Nolasco & Arthur, 1987 and Eckard & Kearny, 1981 on a composite of instructional activities; Grant, 1996 on television soap operas; Chou & Kai, 1995 on simulation; Sinnema, 1971 on rotation drills; Harper & Lively, 1987 on magazine pictures, checklists, questionnaires, surveys, opinionnaires, and paired situation cards; Master & Reising, 1998 on portfolios; and Arnold, 1978 on blackboard drawings) and conversation coursebooks (e.g., McClure, 1996).

The divergent topics of interest contained in the above three types of research, while testifying to the multifaceted and intricate nature of conversation and the complexity and diversity involved in the teaching of the course, more importantly help pinpoint several important issues which need to be addressed by this very study when looking into the conversation instruction adopted by the English/Foreign Language and Literature faculty in universities in Taiwan. These issues will be detailed in the following section.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

One of the questions the study aims to answer, as suggested by the literature, concerns the content of the course, that is, to ascertain to what extent the content is directly related to English conversation as a unique discourse genre (i.e., including discussion of such issues as "conversation process," "conversational rules," "conversational strategies," "functions and meanings in conversation," "social and cultural contexts and conversation" [DeVito, 1992; Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992, 1994; Richards, 1990; Richards & Sukwiwat, 1985]), and to what extent the content is concerned primarily with training of general oral English proficiency with no specific emphasis on conversational competence. Related to the first inquiry is the question of what type of conversation is taught or emphasized in class. Conversation in general can be categorized into two types: that in which the primary focus is exchange of information (transactional talk) and that in which the primary focus is establish and maintain social relations (interactional talk) (Brown & Yule, 1983b; McCarthy, 1991). Depending on the type of conversation stressed, the content of the course will vary. If the primary focus is on transactional talk, customary practices and idiomatic expressions pertaining to various service encounters will be covered. However, if interactional talk is emphasized, conversation process, gambits and rules, and interactional dynamics are likely to be discussed.

In addition to the course content, this study also intends to investigate the instructional approaches and techniques adopted for the course. Two major approaches to the teaching of English Conversation are documented in the literature: the indirect and direct approaches (Richards, 1990; Dornyei & Thurrell, 1994; Sze, 1995). The indirect approach, or engaging students in communicative, i.e., interactive but unnecessarily dialogical, task activities such as discussion, problem-solving, information-gap, questions and answers, etc. (e.g., the activities introduced in *Teaching Conversation Skills in ESL* by Eckard and Kearny, 1981; in *Keep Talking: Communicative Fluency Activities for Language Teaching* by Klippel, 1984; and in *Getting Students to Talk* by Glolebiowska, 1990), was typical of communicative language teaching in the 1980s (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1994). This approach deems conversation as a means to an end (second language acquisition), not an end in itself. In other words, "in using conversation to interact with others, learners gradually acquire the competence that underlines the ability to use language" (Richards, 1990, p. 77); "the result is language being acquired, not enhanced conversation skills" (Sze, 1995, p. 232). As the communication activities often focus on using conversation to convey information, negotiate meaning, or complete a task, it is the transactional uses of language that are focused on and practiced. The direct approach, or teaching conversation through dissecting and partaking in conversation (e.g., the activities contained in *Gambits: Conversational Tools Vol. I, II, & III* by Keller and Warner, 1976, and in *Conversation and Dialogues in Action* by Dornyei and Thurrell, 1992), however, focuses explicitly on the processes and strategies involved in casual conversation and views conversational competence an end in itself. Thus, a course adopting a direct approach is devised around teaching learners the conversation process, microskills, and strategies entailed in everyday, spontaneous conversation. While linguist and language educator Richards (1990) advocated a two-pronged approach which teaches conversation via both indirect and direct methods, some scholars like Dornyei and Thurrell (1994), Sze (1995), Kaplan

(1997) promoted the direct approach. With the recently growing interest in and attention to corpus linguistics, i.e., studying and analyzing a collection of spoken and written texts gathered from everyday life, current conversation pedagogy research seems to be turning its attention to the direct approach, i.e., aiming at fostering students' awareness of conversation rules to follow, strategies to use, and pitfalls to avoid, increasing their sensitivity to the underlying processes, and providing them with specific language input. Thus, to explore the way the English Conversation course is taught at the university level in Taiwan, the present study sought to examine the extent to which each approach is practiced, as well as address the strengths and weaknesses of each approach.

In addition to the course content and teaching approach, the study will also investigate following issues: 1) How the instructor perceives the course (e.g., its importance, usefulness), his/her experience of teaching the course (e.g., degree of willingness, sense of achievement), and the students who enroll the course (e.g., their learning motivation, psychological barriers, spoken language proficiency), and 2) how students are evaluated. It is the aim of the study to uncover not only the practical, instrumental aspects but also the psychological and perceptual factors involved in the teaching of the course. As to the means of evaluating student performance, the study will ascertain the degree to which the methods and techniques used for evaluation reflect pan-communication- vs. conversation-concerned competence, and a textbook bound, contrived/staged dialogue vs. spontaneous conversation.

METHODOLOGY

To attain a picture representative of the teaching approaches of English Conversation adopted at the tertiary educational level in Taiwan, the study resorted to questionnaires as the major research method.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire, constructed in two language versions--Chinese and English--included: 1) 6 fill-ins to determine certain demographic and background information on the instructor and the course (e.g., the instructor's nationality, school(s) taught, years of experience in teaching English conversation, general nature and size of the class), 2) 35 5-point-scale statements to investigate the instructor's attitude and adoption of some specific teaching practices for the course, and 3) 4 open-ended questions to solicit the instructor's conception of English conversational competence, and the content and activities employed for the course (see Appendix for the complete version of the Chinese and English questionnaires). While the scaled items could get at the instructor's responses to some specific inquiries, such as the type of conversation emphasized, and the presence/absence of certain instructional principles and practices, the open-ended questions were designed for inquires of a broader scope, such as those concerning the instructor's perception of conversational competence, the course content, and teaching activities. Answers obtained from the open-ended questions, which can be characterized by the absence of a cueing/lead-on effect on the respondents, can be used to cross-reference with their responses gathered from the scaled items. To encourage truthful answers, the respondents were kept anonymous and the questionnaires were not pre-marked in any way to facilitate the identification of the respondent.

Data-Collecting Procedure

Data-collection proceeded in the following manner. The English or Foreign Languages departments that offer a course titled "English Conversation" were first identified via the website "English.ccu.edu.tw/English/chiver.htm". Altogether there were 16 universities. The names and nationality (classified as Chinese or foreigner) of the instructors who were at the time teaching the course in those departments were then obtained by phoning the departments individually. In all there were 90 teachers teaching the course in Departments of English/Foreign Languages in the 2000-2001 academic year; among them, 43 were Chinese, and 47, foreign teachers. The Chinese version of the questionnaire was then sent to the Chinese teachers, and the English version, to the foreign teachers. Together with the questionnaire were a post card and a return envelope with the postage included. The purpose of the post card, on which appeared the instructor's name and the statements, "I have completed and mailed back the questionnaire" and "I can participate in the interview," was for the researcher to keep a record of those who did and did not return the questionnaire and to contact those who were willing to take part in the follow-up interview[1]. The respondent was instructed to send back the post card and the completed questionnaire separately should they wish to conceal their identity. For those who returned the questionnaire, as indicated by the returned post card, a thank-you card was later mailed as a token of the researcher's appreciation; for those who failed to return the questionnaire in one month, a reminder card together with another copy of the questionnaire, a post card and a return envelope was sent out again. The follow-up reminder card seemed to help boost the return rate of the questionnaires, a problem characteristic of surveying as a research method, for 21 instructors returned the questionnaire the first time, and another 14, the second time, making the total response rate 38.8%. Of the 35 returned questionnaires, 34 were valid.

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[1] For some personal reasons, the interviews were not conducted.

Data Analysis

The answers to the first part of the questionnaire, the 6 fill-in questions for soliciting some demographic and background information, were recorded and tallied. Since the study was a preliminary study on this topic, the scaled items, the second part of the questionnaire, were not constructed to test specific hypotheses via detailed statistical analysis but to explore some general issues and identify the potential areas of inquiry for future research. Thus, a simple frequency count was applied to analyzing the scaled responses. That is, for each question, the respondents' answers on the 1-to-5-opinion-scale were tallied for locating those frequently, and if necessary, infrequently selected responses. The responses "5," "3," and "1" on the scale, as indicated in the questionnaire, corresponded to "agree," "neutral," and "disagree" respectively. The response "4," being between 5 ("agree") and 3 ("neutral)," was coded as "somewhat or partially agree;" in the same token, "2" was coded as "somewhat or partially disagree." With regard to the answers to the open-ended questions, content analysis was adopted for the coding. Respondents' answers to each question were first jotted down. Next, general categories were extracted from those responses. After that, the responses were re-read for proper grouping and tallying under the general categories.

RESULTS

In accordance with the content of the questionnaire, the results reported here are also categorized into three parts: 1) background information of the respondents and courses, 2) forced-choice responses to the scaled items, and 3) answers to the open-ended questions.

Background Information of the Respondents and Courses

Of the thirty-four individuals who responded to the questionnaire, there were 19 Chinese, 10 Americans, 2 Canadians, 1 Britan, 1 Philippino, and 1 self-identified as "foreigner." The respondents were teaching the course English Conversation in the Department of English/Foreign Languages at 12 different universities in Taiwan, including Cheng-Chih University, Cheng-Li University, Chi-Nan University, Chung-Yuen University, Fu-Jen University, Hua-Fan University, Ming-Chuan University, National Kaohsiung Normal University, National Taiwan Normal University, Providence University, Soochow University, and Yuen-Ze University. Twelve of the respondents had taught the course less than 5 years; 13, between 5 and 10 years; 7, more than 10 years; and two did not provide an answer to this question. As to some general information about the course, in all but one of these 12 programs, English Conversation was a required course. In 5 of the 12 programs, English

Conversation was offered for only one year; in the other 7 programs, the course was required for two consecutive years, i.e., in the freshman and sophomore years. Seventeen respondents were teaching a class of between 13 and 25 students; another 13 respondents were instructing a class of more than 25 students. By matching the respondents' answers and the programs they taught in, it appears that the majority of these 12 programs had a course sized between 15 and 25.

Forced-choice Responses to the Scaled Items

Respondents' answers to the scaled statements are grouped into instructors' feelings about teaching the course and perceptions of the learners (represented by items 1 to 10 and 32), materials and methods of instruction (represented by items 11 to 31), and methods of evaluation (represented by items 33 to 35).

Instructors' feelings about teaching the course and perceptions of the learners

With regard to the instructors' feelings about teaching the course, most respondents confirmed the importance of the course and had a positive experience in teaching the course. Most of the respondents, or 29 out of 34, agreed (20 respondents) or somewhat agreed (9 respondents) that English Conversation is a course that can help enhance students' oral English competence (scaled item 3). The great majority of the respondents, or 31, agreed (25 respondents) or somewhat agreed (6 respondents) that they were willing to teach the course (scaled item 1 in the questionnaire). Among those who chose "agree" to this item, 16 were Chinese (i.e., close to fourth-fifths of the Chinese respondents), and 9, were foreigners (i.e., shy of two-thirds of the foreign respondents). Twenty-seven respondents agreed (18 respondents) or somewhat agreed (9 respondents) that they had a sense of achievement teaching the course (scaled item 2). Most respondents indicated an agreement or partial agreement to the scaled items 4 and 5 which concerned their confidence in teaching the course; 30 "agreed" or "somewhat agreed" (with 17 indicating an agreement, and 13, a partial agreement) that they had confidence in the teaching materials (scaled item 4), and 29 "agreed" or "somewhat agreed" (with 14 indicating an agreement, and 15, a partial agreement) that they had confidence in the instructional methods (scaled item 5). If only those who checked "agree" to scaled items 4 and 5 are counted, 12, or close to three-fifths of, Chinese respondents, as opposed to 5, or one-third of, foreign respondents indicated that they had confidence in the content of the course, and 12 Chinese respondents, in comparison with 2 foreign respondents, stated that they had confidence in the teaching methods used.

As to the instructors' perceptions of the learners who were at the time taking the course, more than three-fifths of the respondents agreed (5 respondents) or somewhat agreed (17 respondents) to the statement that their students were motivated in learning English conversation (scaled item 6); about two-thirds of the respondents, or 23, indicated an agreement (10 respondents) or partial agreement (13 respondents) to the statement that their students had intermediate or advanced level of proficiency in spoken English (scaled item 8); and more than half of, or 19, teachers agreed (9 respondents) or somewhat agreed (10 respondents) that their students, for certain psychological factors, were unwilling to converse with foreigners in English, in comparison with 8 teachers who somewhat disagreed and 2 teachers who disagreed that their students had suffered from such psychological hindrance (scaled item 7). Despite some concerns about students' learning motivation and psychological barriers, the majority of the respondents, nevertheless, remained confident or somewhat confident that the course can cultivate in students conversational competence called for in real life interactions with foreigners. This is shown by the result that 27 respondents agreed or somewhat agreed (with 12 indicating an agreement, and 15, a partial agreement) that their students, with the completion of the course, would have the ability to converse with foreigners in English; and 25 respondents agreed or somewhat agreed (with 11 indicating an agreement, and 14, a partial agreement) that their students would take the initiative to converse with foreigners in English after finishing the course (scaled items 9 and 10). Compared with the Chinese respondents, the foreign respondents revealed more reservation about their students' initiating English conversation with foreigners; 8 foreign teachers indicated an agreement (3 respondents) or partial agreement (5 respondents) to the statement, in comparison with 17 Chinese teachers, among whom 8 agreed and 9 somewhat agreed to the statement.

Materials and methods of instruction

With respect to the ways the course was taught, the findings pertain to the type of conversation taught, components of conversational competence emphasized, teaching approach employed, and other aspects of instruction.

Type of conversation taught

Regarding the type of conversation students practiced in class, conversations dealing with everyday task situations (transactional talk) (scaled item 17), conversation unfolding during social encounters (interactional talk) (scaled item 18), and conversation targeting various language functions (scaled item 19) received roughly similar amounts of attention from the respondents, marked respectively by 21, 28 and 23 teachers as the type of conversation practiced in class. Seventy per cent of the respondents (i.e., 24 out of the 34 instructors) indicated that they taught two or all three types of conversation in their classes.

Components of conversational competence emphasized

Among the four components of conversational competence, i.e., grammatical, sociocultural, discourse, and strategic competence (as defined by Canale & Swain [1980] and later by Canale [1983]), grammatical competence apparently received a great deal of attention from the respondents. This is evidenced by the fact that more than half of the respondents, or 18, agreed (3 respondents) or somewhat agreed (15 respondents) that they emphasized grammatical accuracy in students' conversation (scaled item 11), and over two-thirds of the respondents, or 25, agreed (8 respondents) or somewhat agreed (17 respondents) that they stressed the accuracy of students' pronunciation (scaled item 12). The emphasis on grammatical competence is also proved by the fact that 27 respondents agreed (15 respondents) or somewhat agreed (12 respondents) that they put emphasis on students' acquisition of vocabulary and expressions related to different conversation topics, or the lexical knowledge (scaled item 25). Chinese respondents, compared with their foreign counterpart, appeared to put more emphasis on grammar and vocabulary; 12 Chinese teachers indicated an agreement (3 respondents) or partial agreement (9 respondents), as opposed to 6 foreign respondents who somewhat agreed, to the statement that in the course of the instruction they emphasized students' grammatical accuracy; and 17 Chinese teachers (with 12 indicating an agreement, and 5, a partial agreement), compared with 10 foreign teachers (with 3 indicating an agreement, and 7, a partial agreement), agreed or somewhat agreed that when teaching the course, they emphasized students' acquiring vocabulary and expressions related to different conversation topics. This stress on grammatical competence was, however, not carried through the instructional activities; about half of the Chinese respondents who emphasized such linguistic abilities as grammar and pronunciation did not engage students in grammar/sentence pattern and/or pronunciation practice in class (scaled items 14 and 15).

Comparatively, lesser emphasis was placed on discourse competence by the respondents, and it is evidenced by the fact that, compared with 27 respondents who emphasized or somewhat emphasized cultivating students' lexical ability, only 14 considered learning of the discourse features of English conversation, and 18, understanding of the conversation structure important or somewhat important (scaled items 24 and 26). Among the 18 respondents who agreed or somewhat agreed that they emphasized students' learning of conversation structure, 14 were Chinese, with merely 4 being foreign respondents.

As to the strategic competence, though 26 teachers agreed (9 respondents) or somewhat agreed (17 respondents) that they put emphasis on students' acquisition of

English conversation management skills (scaled item 23), half of these teachers checked "neutral" or "somewhat disagree" when asked if they put stress on students' learning of the discourse features of English conversation. As conversational management skills are closely related to knowledge of the conversation discourse, this finding was perplexing. One plausible explanation is that the term "conversation management skills" was not well understood by many respondents and thus interpreted simply as skills to open or close a conversation and not for other crucial conversational routines.

Regarding sociocultural competence, 22 respondents agreed (12 respondents) or somewhat agreed (10 respondents) that they put emphasis on cultivating students' ability to analyze and adjust the conversation to the context and interlocutor (scaled item 27). Twenty respondents (9 indicating an "agreement," and 11, a "partial agreement") emphasized students' understanding of their home culture (scaled item 28); and 27 respondents (12 indicating an "agreement," and 15, a "partial agreement"), put emphasis on students' learning of the target culture(s) (scaled item 29). Marked differences were again noted between Chinese and foreign respondents in the emphasis they placed on the sociocultural aspects of conversational competence. Among the 19 Chinese and 14 foreign respondents who replied to scaled item 27, 9 Chinese vs. 3 foreign teachers agreed, and 6 Chinese vs. 4 foreign teachers somewhat agreed that they emphasized the ability to cater the conversation to the context and interlocutor. Besides, the foreign respondents did not particularly emphasize students' learning of the target culture(s), with 2 answering "agree" and 8, "somewhat agree," compared with 10 and 7 Chinese teachers respectively who responded "agree" and "somewhat agree," to the statement that students' learning about the target (English-speaking) culture(s) is emphasized.

Teaching approach employed

To have a better understanding of the teaching (i.e., direct vs. indirect) approach adopted for the course, the respondents were asked of their opinions on the purpose of the English conversation course and ways of developing conversational competence. More than three-fourths of the respondents, or 26, agreed or somewhat agreed (with 11 indicating an agreement, and 15, a partial agreement) that the major purpose of English conversation is to provide students' with a chance to speak English (scaled item 22); more than half, or 19 (with 11 indicating an agreement, and 8, a partial agreement), that students' English conversational competence can be cultivated purely through oral activities like oral presentations, small-group discussions, problem-solving and questions and answers (scaled item 20); and again more than three-fourths of the respondents, or 27 (with 19 indicating an agreement, and 8, a partial agreement), that students' active participation in whatever forms of oral activities can all lead to progress in their ability to converse in English (scaled item 21). In other words, conversation, as seen by the majority of the respondents, is a means to other important ends, one of which being forging the opportunities for students to speak English; and conversational competence can be cultivated via oral activities that call for primarily transactional uses of language or simply speaking up regardless of the content and form of communication—signs pointing to an indirect approach. These findings may help explain the fact that an overwhelming majority of respondents, or 28, agreed or somewhat agreed (with 16 indicating an agreement, and 12 a partial agreement) that they imparted in their conversation classes skills for giving a speech and/or oral presentation, as the results to scaled item 16 show.

Other aspects of instruction

As mentioned earlier, 19 respondents agreed or somewhat agreed that their students, for certain psychological factors, were unwilling to converse with foreigners in English. The results show that most of these respondents either agreed or somewhat agreed that they would address this problem with their students over discussion or other activities in the course of the instruction (scaled item 13). With respect to the role of nonverbal communication, an aspect often receiving not as much attention as verbal performance in a course like English Conversation, 24 respondents agreed (7 respondents) or somewhat agreed (17 respondents) that they emphasized students' nonverbal communication behaviors in their instruction (scaled item 31). On this item, some apparent differences were again noted between the Chinese and foreign teachers in their responses; all but one Chinese teacher indicated they stressed or somewhat stressed students' nonverbal behaviors, while 6 out of the 15 foreign teachers responded in this manner.

Methods of evaluation

Over two-thirds, or 26, of the respondents agreed (12 respondents) or somewhat agreed (14 respondents) that they were confident in their methods of evaluation, believing that those methods can detect students' English conversational competence (scaled item 32). Among them, 9 Chinese respondents checked "agree," and 8, "somewhat agree" to the statement, in comparison with 3 and 6 foreign respondents respectively. With regard to the evaluation methods, having students' perform spontaneous dialogues (scaled item 34), and give oral presentations or partake in other non-dialogical oral activities (scaled item 35), in that order, were more popularly adopted than having students enact previously prepared and memorized dialogues (scaled item 33). This is indicated by the fact that nearly four-fifths of the respondents checked agree or somewhat agree to the scaled item 34, slightly over three-fifths of the respondents, to scaled item 35, and about one-third of the respondents, to scaled item 33. More than two-thirds of the respondents applied two or all three of the methods of evaluation.

Answers to the Open-ended Questions

Among the four open-ended questions, only the answers to questions 2 and 3 are reported on here. The first question ("In your opinion, what personal qualities/criteria does one need to have to be able to converse in English with foreigners?"), which was originally meant to tap respondents' perception of non-natives' English conversational competence when speaking with natives, seemed to create some confusion. The word "foreigners" was ambiguous and was interpreted by some foreign respondents as "native speakers' English conversational competence when talking with non-natives," an interpretation utterly different from the meaning the question was originally meant to convey. This interpretation was also divergent from that of the Chinese respondents. For these reasons, question 1 had to be excluded from the analysis. The answers to question 4 are not reported here, for the question itself is not directly related to the inquiry of this study and is included in the questionnaire primarily as a reference for future research directions.

Respondents' answers to question 2 ("What teaching material/materials do you adopt for your English Conversation course [if your use handouts, please elaborate on the content/nature of the handouts]? Why do you choose it/them?) are indeed of a great variety, including textbooks, handouts of materials from books, newspapers, magazines, and web sites, pictures, realia, movies, video/audio tapes, etc. And most respondents employed multiple types of materials to meet students' needs and interests. Among the 31 respondents who answered the question, 16 indicated that they used textbooks, among whom 12 were Chinese, and 4, foreigners. They used textbooks primarily because the books contain practical vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, pronunciation drills and/or sentence patterns, interesting or a wide range of topics to generate conversation or discussion, vivid illustrations, practical or updated cultural information, and/or useful reading or listening comprehension exercises. Some of the more commonly mentioned textbooks include *Ideas and Issues*, *Putting it Together: A Conversation Management Text*, and *New Interchange*; books mentioned only once are *Headway*, *Interchange*, *Explorations*, *The Big Picture: Idioms and Metaphors*, *Oxford Pictorial Dictionary*, *Spectrum: A Communicative Course in English*, *New American Streamline*, *Can't Stop Talking*, *Passages*, *Family Album, U.S.A.*, *Great Ideas*, *Topics for Listening*, and *The Culture Puzzle*. However, 4 Chinese and 11 foreign teachers stated that they preferred other materials to textbooks. The reasons why these instructors did not choose textbooks include that textbooks cannot meet the needs of the students, that students' are not interested in the topics contained in the textbooks, that students at this proficiency level should free themselves from memorizing the sample dialogues in the textbook, and that the class is activity- rather than content-oriented and thus can do without the text.

Respondents' answers to question 3 ("What instructional method/methods [or activity/activities] do you employ to teach the course? Why do you choose it/them") are again rather diversified. Group discussion topped all the methods/activities, mentioned altogether by 19 respondents (12 Chinese and 7 foreign teachers). Individual/pair/group presentation was the second most popular activity employed, and was indicated by 16 respondents (12 Chinese and 4 foreign teachers). Pair work (including free discussion, discussion of certain topics, and impromptu or planned dialogue) was ranked as a close third, employed by 14 respondents (8 Chinese and 6 foreign teachers). Five respondents utilized role-plays (3 Chinese and 2 foreign teachers); 5 (1 Chinese and 4 foreign teachers), speeches (prepared or impromptu); 4 (2 Chinese and 2 foreign teachers), lecturing/modeling; and 3 (1 Chinese and 2 foreign teachers), debate, in their conversation class. Other activities that were mentioned by only one or two respondents included interviews, games, dictation, listening practice, reading dialogues, questions and answers, and listening to other students' conversations which were recorded prior to the class. Some commonly mentioned general rationales behind most of the oral activities were to prompt or force students to express themselves, maximize the chance for them to speak English, and interact with and learn from other class members. Some more specific aims included to increase knowledge of different topics, practice newly acquired vocabulary, correct pronunciation mistakes, acquire oral presentation skills, and enhance the ability to think, communicate, or respond appropriately and quickly. Diverse as the instructional methods were, judging from the communicative, but not necessarily dialogical, and task-oriented nature of most of these activities and the rationale of utilizing them to enhance students' speaking proficiency and not necessarily conversational competence, a picture of, again, an indirect approach is revealed.

DISCUSSION

A closer examination of the pedagogical issues reported earlier has led to a picture that is both uplifting and puzzling about the conversation instruction in the English/Foreign Languages curricula in Taiwanese universities. The discussion now turns to those pieces of the picture.

Teaching English Conversation: A Positive Experience

As the analysis of the responses to the scaled statements shows, there are indeed many encouraging signs concerning the instruction of the English Conversation course taught in the Department of English/Foreign Languages in universities in Taiwan. First, most of the respondents had a positive experience and a sense of achievement from teaching the course. Consequently, most of them expressed a high level of willingness to teach the course. Most of the respondents also indicated some confidence in the way they taught the course, including both the teaching materials and methods adopted. This confidence also led them to believe that students, upon the completion of the course, would have the competence to converse in English with foreigners. Regardless of the real effect of their instructional approach, the conversation instructors' positive and confident attitudes toward their teaching experience and performance in this course can be taken as an encouraging sign about the current situation of collegiate conversation instruction.

Rising Attention to Conversation as an Oral Discourse

Second, although the long-standing emphasis on students' grammatical competence (such as grammar, pronunciation, lexis) was still very much in practice in the Conversation course, the newly surging stress on students' acquisition of sociocultural, discourse, and strategic competence as other indispensable components of conversational competence had begun to receive more attention from some teachers and been included in their instruction. This is evidenced by the fact that a good number of instructors, though smaller in number than those who stressed students' grammatical performance, indicated that they had incorporated into their instruction learning of communication strategies, conversation structure, routines and management skills, and some cultural and contextual contingencies of a conversation. All these findings show that conversation instruction, at least in the English/Foreign Languages curricula in the universities in Taiwan, has marched into a new, different era in which the unique discourse genre of conversation is being more popularly recognized and attended to in class. In other words, the study has found that at least some instructors were aware of the fact that conversation is very much a structured, strategic, and context-sensitive oral activity that can be managed and systematically imparted/studied.

Some Commendable Teaching Practices

Regarding the teaching approach and evaluation methods used, some admirable efforts and laudable practices can also be identified. It was found that most of the teachers employed multiple types of material, from the most traditional, printed materials to the latest electronic technology like the Internet, to heighten students' interest and to meet their needs. And to ensure the maximal amount of oral participation from students, a variety of learner-centered instructional activities, including group discussion, oral presentation, pair work, role-play, speech and debate, were heavily utilized. Thus, it can be said that most respondents had made an extended effort to make the course as interesting and helpful to the enhancement of students' oral proficiency as possible. As to the methods of evaluation, the most popularly adopted method—performing spontaneous dialogues—can indeed capture the impromptu, off-hand nature of conversation as a speaking event and can also more accurately detect the competence level of the students who have an intermediate or advanced level of proficiency in spoken English.

Indirect Approach and Its Limitations

Despite the above encouraging signs about the respondents' attitudes and approaches of teaching the course, there are certain practices, as indicated in some respondents' replies, which were baffling and thus worthy of further examination. The growing emphasis in many respondents' answers on students' acquisition of discourse, strategic and sociocultural competence unique to English conversation, evidence of a direct approach of teaching English Conversation, seemed to contradict the perceptions popularly held by many of them which speak for an indirect approach, i.e., English conversation is a course the purpose of which is mainly to entice or force students to speak English, and English conversational competence can be cultivated via non-dialogical activities. One plausible explanation for this conflicting result is that for some respondents their stress on the various components of conversational competence might not be a conscious, informed decision on their part; rather it was simply a result of the approach of the textbook they used. While loyally basing their instruction on the textbook, many could be unaware of the rationale behind its design and continued to perceive English conversation as equivalent to merely English speaking. Another explanation is that although there were some traces of a direct approach in many teachers' responses, most of them, nevertheless, relied more on an indirect approach to teach the course. This explanation seems to be well founded on the evidence drawn from the respondents' answers to both the scaled statements and the open-ended questions.

In view that an indirect approach was more popularly adopted by the respondents, a limitation of this approach to the teaching of conversation needs to be noted. An indirect approach, while providing opportunities for learners to engage in natural interaction through the use of communicative tasks and activities, may not be teaching conversation in a real sense (Richards, 1990). Take discussion, an activity most commonly employed by the respondents in a conversation class, as an example; it differs from conversation in the variety of topics covered, the degree of depth and seriousness in which the topics are dealt with, and the extent of preparation involved. In a discussion, the topics are normally fewer and pre-specified, and because of the advanced preparation required of the discussants, the topics are usually handled in greater depth and a more serious manner; conversation, on the other hand, can engender and accommodate more topics which however are dealt with in a more perfunctory fashion, and unfolds spontaneously.

Similarly oral presentations, the second most popular instructional activity adopted by the respondents, and conversation are rather discrete in their forms and functions. While oral presentations, like speeches, are basically monologues, guided by clear instrumental purposes, conversations are dialogical, building on turn-taking mechanism, and may occur for transactional and/or interactional purposes.

Conversations are also different from role-plays/simulations, ranked as the fourth most commonly chosen teaching method, because the language created by learners in role-plays or simulations is often unnatural (Aston, 1995), and their manner, as interlocutors, often pretentious and exaggerated. In other words, instead of conversing, they are "acting out" a conversation. Thus, via those communicative but non-dialogical activities, although learners are given the chance to express themselves and interact with one another, they may not necessarily acquire the knowledge, attitudes and skills specifically required for engaging in a conversation, an oral event distinctly different from other forms of talk.

Conversation-focused Approach and Its Advantages

To not equate conversation with speaking in general and Conversation class with Oral Communication class, the coursebook or instructional material chosen has to have a clear "conversation" focus, meaning that it should be designed primarily to teach conversation, not discussion, presentations, listening, lexis, or oral communication in general, as some of the textbooks listed above indicate. The dialogues and exercises contained in the textbooks, in addition to being used to exemplify sentence structures or communicative functions, as some respondents claimed, have to, most importantly, introduce and illustrate different discourse features of conversation and useful conversational skills/strategies (e.g., how to open and close a conversation, how to request or relinquish speaking turns, how to listen actively, how to request clarification, how to hold back the more talkative members and draw out the shy or self-conscious ones). The dialogues should also capture the characteristics of naturally, spontaneously occurring speech like false starts, fillers, re-phrasing, hesitations, slips of the tongue, repetitions, unfinished sentences, etc.

(Sze, 1995). And the materials chosen by some respondents like songs, realia, pictures, films/videos, and newspapers/magazines shouldn't be simply for, as many of them stated, arousing students' interest and motivating them to talk; they should also be suitable for and properly integrated into a conversation class. So, for example, when newspaper reports/articles are used, students can be instructed as to how to use them as conversation topics, how to introduce them into a conversation, how to recount the news/story, how to clarify certain information or details, and how to respond to it. Take realia as another example. To connect them more directly with conversation, they can be capitalized on to develop in students such communication skills as approximation, word coinage, circumlocution etc., which may come in handy in conversation.

Though growing attention on cultivating in students abilities regarding other non-grammatical components of communicative competence was documented in the study, still more heed can be paid to learners' development of discourse and strategic competence, two indispensable elements of conversational competence. This pedagogical focus is particularly cogent in the case of the Conversation courses offered by the English/Foreign Languages departments in universities in Taiwan where the majority of the respondents rated most of their students as having an intermediate to advanced level of spoken proficiency. For learners of such proficiency levels, not only is there no urgent need to underscore learners' grammatical performance in a Conversation class; in fact, too much emphasis on grammatical and pronunciation accuracy and acquisition of vocabulary may well psychologically inhibit or deter learners from willingly engaging in an English conversation. Acquisition of discourse (e.g., conversation gambits and routines) and strategic competence, on the other hand, can help learners behave appropriately or with more confidence when conversing in English, even if their overall command of the linguistic code is less than adequate (Chang, 2001a, 2001b; Siskin & Spinelli, 1987). Adoption of certain discourse features like gambits and fillers can also lend a sense of naturalness and fluency to speech (Nolasco & Arthur, 1987; Pawley & Syder, 1985). Thus, acquisition of discourse and strategic competence can not only motivate learners to participate in English conversation with natives but also help them mend their linguistic deficiencies and navigate the conversation more smoothly.

Differences between Native and Non-native Teachers: A Side Note

One of the unexpected but intriguing findings the study has derived concerns the differences noted between native and nonnative teachers in their attitudes toward and ways of teaching the course. Some may argue that such differences could be attributed to Chinese people's tendency to agree than disagree with the statements in the scaled items or to preserve a positive self-image. However, since the respondents were kept anonymous, the stake of being viewed as a dissident or an incompetent teacher because of how they responded to certain scaled items was greatly minimized. Thus, there is a good reason to believe that the Chinese respondents' answers, rather than being false, were fair representations of how they truly perceived and approached the course. Under this premise, the differences are now analyzed and discussed.

The disparities found in the responses between Chinese and foreign teachers may suggest possible re-examination of a popular belief that English-speaking native teachers, due to their linguistic and cultural advantages over their non-native counterparts, are preferred for teaching oral training courses. The findings show that a much higher percentage of nonnative, Chinese teachers indicated willingness to teach the course, and displayed confidence in the teaching materials and methods and means of evaluation. Despite a lack of language and cultural vintage point inborn to a native speaker, a larger fraction of Chinese teachers put emphasis on students' development pertaining to discourse (e.g., understanding of conversation structure) and sociocultural competence (e.g., ability to analyze and adjust the conversation to the context and the interlocutor, and learning of the target culture[s]). Finally, the number of Chinese teachers who heeded students' nonverbal behaviors, a subtle and yet crucial aspect of communication, also far exceeded that of the native teachers. Thus, nationality may not be the best determinant and certainly should not be the sole criterion for selecting instructors for oral training courses like Conversation. A similar contention was also found in the response given by one foreign teacher who participated in the study, "Most schools see a white face and automatically put you in the 'conversation' slot. (Conversely, many Chinese colleagues suffer when students don't think they can teach conversation because they don't look foreign.)" In addition to spoken English ability, teachers' personal interest and academic training should be seriously taken into consideration when assigning teachers for the English Conversation course, an indeed unique, oral English course.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

As a preliminary attempt to explore the teaching approach of the English Conversation course in the English/Foreign Languages curricula in universities in Taiwan, this study has also identified particular problems with this type of research, and avenues for further study. First, a 38.8% return rate of the questionnaire can certainly be increased. By duplicating the study, with more Conversation programs and teachers involved, a more comprehensive picture about collegiate-level Conversation instruction can be attained. In addition to questionnaires, semi-structured interviews can be conducted with the respondents as a way to get at more detailed information and to cross-reference the data collected from the questionnaires. With this study as the ground work, a statistically designed and pre-tested questionnaire can be constructed and used as the instrument in future studies for more focused and specific inquiries on this topic; the results so derived will have better generalizability. This is particularly true with the findings regarding the differences found between local Chinese and foreign instructors in the study. Via a more precise instrument and statistical analysis, the differences can be better identified.

Besides refining the methods for the inquiries explored in this study, different but related lines of interest can be pursued in future studies. For example, the effects of the direct and indirect approaches on cultivating students' conversational competence need be investigated. As much of the support advocating the direct approach to teaching Conversation is a theoretical assertion rather than supported by empirical evidence, future studies need to empirically test the instructional effects of both approaches. Surveying students' needs and perspectives concerning English conversation so as to incorporate their viewpoints into the teaching approach is another area of interest that can be looked into by future research.

CONCLUSION

To attain a picture of how English Conversation is taught in the English/Foreign Languages curricula in universities in Taiwan, this study has surveyed more than one-third of the instructors of the course from 12 different programs. The findings show that there were both encouraging and baffling signs about the teaching practices adopted. It is encouraging to know that most of the respondents had a positive experience teaching and thus were willing to teach the course, that most were at least somewhat confident in the way they taught the course, that most employed multiple types of material and learner-centered activities to arouse students' interest, meet their needs and maximize their oral participation in class, and that some amount of attention had been directed to cultivate students' discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence, in addition to their grammatical or linguistic ability. There are, however, also some perceptions and practices of the respondents that are puzzling or worth re-examination. As most of the respondents appeared to rely more on an indirect than a direct approach to teach the course, they need to be aware of some possible weaknesses of an indirect approach to teaching the course. Though providing students with many opportunities to speak English, an indirect approach does not explicitly instruct students on the discourse features and communication skills directly conducive to conducting English conversation. Related to the common practice of an indirect approach is the lack of a clear "conversation" focus in the teaching materials selected. Some of the coursebooks were for teaching lexis, discussion, or other forms of oral communication, but not conversation specifically, and many of the materials were chosen chiefly for the reason that they could arouse students' interests and motivate them to talk which seemingly equates conversation with speaking. A great deal of emphasis placed by most of the respondents on students' grammatical or linguistic competence, given that most of these students were said to have intermediate or advanced level of spoken English proficiency, is another practice that the respondents may want to reconsider, for too much stress on grammatical/pronunciation accuracy and vocabulary learning may psychologically inhibit students from speaking up or deter them from partaking in any spontaneous interaction with native speakers. The commonly held impression that English-speaking native teachers, for their linguistic and cultural advantages over non-native instructors, are preferred in teaching oral training courses should perhaps be re-examined. The evidence in the study suggests that in addition to spoken English ability and target cultural literacy, teachers' personal interest and relevant academic training should be taken into consideration as well. Finally some suggestions were made to future research pertaining to this topic and other related topics, including securing a larger number of respondents, supplementing questionnaires with interviews, resorting to statistical analysis for specific inquiries, empirically testing the effects of a direct vs. an indirect approach on cultivating learners' conversational competence, and determining students' needs and perspectives on English conversation so as to integrate them into the Conversation instruction.

This research project hopefully has shed some light on how the course English Conversation is perceived and taught in the English/Foreign Languages curricula at universities in Taiwan, and on how adequate some perceptions and teaching practices are given the unique speech genre of English conversation and students' levels of English proficiency. As the term "an enigma in language teaching" (Richards, 1990) suggests, the English conversation course, and what should be taught in it, and how it should be taught has long been a mystifying issue to the instructors of the course. This and two other attempts taken by the researcher (Chang, 2001a, 2001b) may mark the beginning of one language teacher's efforts to untangle the puzzle, but surely more studies and joint endeavors are needed to further "demystify" the course.

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

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APPENDIX

English Questionnaire

Dear Teacher,

This questionnaire, as a part of a research project, aims to explore how teachers in the Department of English/Foreign Languages in universities in Taiwan currently perceive and teach the course "English Conversation," including your teaching materials/methods, your instructional focuses, and your view of the students and the course in general. We sincerely hope that you can take some time filling it out. Your generous help with this project is deeply appreciated.

Sincerely,
Shau-Ju (Charlotte) Chang & assistants
Associate Professor
Department of English,
National Taiwan Normal University

Please fill your answers in the blanks.

What is your nationality? _______________

In which school do you teach English Conversation? _______________

How many years have you taught English Conversation? ______

Is the English Conversation course you teach a required or an elective course?

______ required; _____ elective (please put a "√")

For what year of students is the English Conversation course you teach?

______ Freshman; _____ Sophomore; _____ Junior; _____ Senior (please put a "√")

How many students are there in your class? ______

For each of the following statements, circle your answer on the right (the closer the number is to 5, the more you agree with the statement; the closer the number is to 1, the more you disagree with the statement).

	Agree		Neutral		Disagree
1. I'm willing to teach the course.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Teaching the course gives me a sense of achievement.	5	4	3	2	1
3. In terms of enhancing students' oral competence, English Conversation is a very helpful course.	5	4	3	2	1

4. I am confident in the content of my English Conversation course. 5 4 3 2 1

5. I am confident in the instructional method(s) I adopt for my English Conversation course. 5 4 3 2 1

6. My students are motivated in learning English conversation. 5 4 3 2 1

7. My students, for certain psychological factors, are afraid of or unwilling to converse with foreigners in English. 5 4 3 2 1

8. My students have an intermediate or advanced level of proficiency in spoken English. 5 4 3 2 1

9. I am confident that my students, after completing the course, will have the ability to converse with foreigners in English. 5 4 3 2 1

10. I am confident that my students, after completing the course, will take the initiative to converse with foreigners in English when the chance presents itself. 5 4 3 2 1

11. In the course of the instruction, I put emphasis on the accuracy of students' grammar. 5 4 3 2 1

12. In the course of the instruction, I put emphasis on the accuracy of students' pronunciation. 5 4 3 2 1

13. In the course of the instruction, I discuss with students about or have activities designed for some psychological factors that have deterred them from participating in English conversation with others. 5 4 3 2 1

14. In the course of the instruction, I engage students in grammar or sentence pattern practice. 5 4 3 2 1

15. In the course of the instruction, I engage students in pronunciation practice. 5 4 3 2 1

16. In the course of the instruction, I teach students skills pertaining to public speaking and/or oral presentations. 5 4 3 2 1

17. The conversations students practice in class deal with the task situations they encounter in their everyday life like shopping, ordering meals, asking/giving directions, and so on. 5 4 3 2 1

18. The conversations students practice in class deal with social talk, i.e., talk unfolding during social encounters. 5 4 3 2 1

19. The conversations students practice in class deal with different language functions, such as complimenting, inviting, requesting, rejecting, etc. 5 4 3 2 1

20. Students' English conversation competence can be cultivated purely through oral activities like oral presentations, small-group discussions, questions and answers, and problem solving. 5 4 3 2 1

21. No matter what form of oral activities in which students are engaged, as long as they participate actively by speaking up and expressing themselves, they can make progress in their ability to converse in English. 5 4 3 2 1

22. The major purpose of the English Conversation course is to provide students with a chance to speak English. 5 4 3 2 1

23. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on students' acquisition of English conversation management skills. 5 4 3 2 1

24. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on students' understanding of the discourse features of English conversation (e.g., use of sentence fragments, topic-initiation, turn-taking, etc.). 5 4 3 2 1

25. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on students' acquiring vocabulary and expressions related to different conversation topics. 5 4 3 2 1

26. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on students' understanding of the structure of English conversation (e.g., opening, preclosing, closing, etc.). 5 4 3 2 1

27. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on cultivating students' ability to analyze and adjust their conversation to the context and the interlocutor. 5 4 3 2 1

28. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on students' understanding of their own culture. 5 4 3 2 1

29. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on students' learning about the target (English-speaking) culture(s). 5 4 3 2 1

30. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on students' grasping and application of communicative/conversational strategies. 5 4 3 2 1

31. When teaching the course, I put emphasis on students' nonverbal communication behaviors. 5 4 3 2 1

32. I am confident that the way I evaluate students can detect their English conversation competence. 5 4 3 2 1

33. The method I use for evaluating students in this course is to have them perform dialogues they have prepared in advance. 5 4 3 2 1

34. The method I use for evaluating students in this course is to have them dialogue spontaneously based on the instruction they receive on the spot. 5 4 3 2 1

35. The method I use for evaluating students in this course is to have them give oral presentations and/or perform other non-dialogical oral activities. 5 4 3 2 1

Please answer the following questions. In order to read and interpret your responses correctly, please elaborate your answers with as many details and examples as possible.

1. In your opinion, what personal qualities/criteria does one need to have to be able to converse in English with foreigners?

2. What teaching material/materials do you adopt for your English Conversation course (if you use handouts, please elaborate on the content/nature of the handouts)? Why do you choose it/them?

3. What instructional method/methods (or activity/activities) do you employ to teach the course? Why do you choose it/them?

4. What research issues regarding English conversation instruction will be most helpful to your teaching of the course?

P.S.:

1. Thank you very much for your help with the questionnaire. To facilitate our processing of the returned questionnaires, could you please check in the box "I have completed and mailed back the questionnaire" on the postcard and send it back when you mail us the questionnaire. You can choose to mail them back separately. The postcard you send back can help us later mail to you a copy of the final report of this research project as a token of our appreciation.
2. We believe that you must have many other ideas and thoughts about teaching English Conversation, which, however, cannot be relayed to us via the questionnaire. If you would like to share with us in more depth your experience of teaching the course, please check in the box "I can participate in the interview" on the postcard, and we are more than happy to arrange an informal individual interview with you at a time that is convenient for you.
3. If you have prepared a course description or syllabus for your English Conversation course and are willing to share it with us, please mail it together with the questionnaire. You can choose to erase any personal information on the description or syllabus beforehand.

Again, we thank you for your generous help with our research project.

Chinese Questionnaire

老師您好，這是一份以「大學英／外文系英語會話教學現況初探」為研究題目的問卷，我們想瞭解目前國內英／外文系老師，在教授英語會話課時，採用了那些教法，教學重點為何，對該課有那些看法等，希望老師撥冗填寫。在此，我們誠摯地感謝您藉著回答此問卷所提供給我們的寶貴協助。

師大英語系副教授
常紹如
及其研究夥伴
敬上

您的國籍：________
您所服務的學校：________ （若不只一所，請填寫您教授英語會話的學校）
您教授英語會話之年資：________年
所教授之英語會話課程為必修或選修？____必修；____選修 （請勾選）
所教授之英語會話為幾年級之課程？____大一；____大二；____大三；____大四
班上人數：____人

請就下列陳述，於右邊圈選一個最符合您個人意見、或您教學情況的號碼（號碼愈靠近5表示您愈同意該句之陳述，號碼愈靠近1表示您愈不同意該句之陳述）。

		同意		不同意也不反對		不同意
1.	我樂意教授英語會話課	5	4	3	2	1
2.	教授英語會話讓我有成就感	5	4	3	2	1
3.	我覺得英語會話課程能實質提升學生口語能力.......	5	4	3	2	1
4.	我對該課程之授課內容，具有信心	5	4	3	2	1
5.	我對該課程之授課方式，具有信心	5	4	3	2	1
6.	我的學生對該課之學習動機強烈	5	4	3	2	1
7.	我的學生會因某些心理因素，而不敢、或不願以英語和外籍人士交談	5	4	3	2	1
8.	我的學生具備中等、或中等程度以上的英語口語表達能力	5	4	3	2	1
9.	我有信心我的學生在修畢該課後，有能力和外籍人士進行英語對話	5	4	3	2	1
10.	我有信心我的學生在修畢該課後，若遇有英語對話之機會，會主動參與	5	4	3	2	1

11. 在該課教學過程中，我重視學生表達時文法的正確性 5 4 3 2 1
12. 在該課教學過程中，我重視學生表達時發音的正確性 5 4 3 2 1
13. 在該課教學過程中，我會就學生畏懼或不願參與英語會話的一些心理因素，與學生進行討論或設計其他相關活動 5 4 3 2 1
14. 在該課教學過程中，我安排學生做文法和句型上的練習 5 4 3 2 1
15. 在該課教學過程中，我安排學生做發音的練習 5 4 3 2 1
16. 在該課教學過程中，我教導學生做一些公眾演講或口頭報告的練習 5 4 3 2 1
17. 學生在課堂上練習的是日常生活情境所需要用到的會話，如點餐、問路、買東西等........................ 5 4 3 2 1
18. 學生在課堂上練習的是社交場合所可能用到的會話... 5 4 3 2 1
19. 學生在課堂上練習的是以表達常用之語言功能（如讚美、邀請、要求、拒絕等）的會話 5 4 3 2 1
20. 學生英語會話的能力可純粹藉由口頭報告、小組討論、問答練習、問題解決等口語活動來培養 5 4 3 2 1
21. 不論何種型式的口語活動，只要學生積極參與，多開口表達，其英語會話能力自可有所精進 5 4 3 2 1
22. 英語會話課之主要目的是提供學生開口講英語的機會 5 4 3 2 1
23. 在教授該課時，我重視學生在英語會話經營技巧（English conversation management skills）方面的學習 .. 5 4 3 2 1
24. 在教授該課時，我重視學生對英語會話語体（discourse）方面之特色（如 use of sentence fragments, topic-initiation, turn-taking 等）的認識 5 4 3 2 1
25. 在教授該課時，我重視學生學習不同話題相關之字彙和片語 5 4 3 2 1
26. 在教授該課時，我重視學生對英語會話之架構（如 opening, preclosing, closing 等）的了解 5 4 3 2 1
27. 在教授該課時，我重視培養學生分析並依會話情境及對象進行對話的能力 5 4 3 2 1
28. 在教授該課時，我重視學生對其本國文化的瞭解 5 4 3 2 1
29. 在教授該課時，我重視學生對標的國文化（target culture）的認識 5 4 3 2 1
30. 在教授該課時，我重視學生在溝通或會話策略上的掌握與應用 5 4 3 2 1
31. 在教授該課時，我重視學生在非語言行為上的表達 ... 5 4 3 2 1
32. 我有信心我所採用之評量方式，可以反映出學生在英語會話上之能力 5 4 3 2 1

33. 我在該課所使用的評量方式是讓學生進行或演出事前所準備之對話 5 4 3 2 1

34. 我在該課所使用的評量方式是讓學生就臨場所給之指示，進行即席對話 5 4 3 2 1

35. 我在該課所使用的評量方式是讓學生做口頭報告、或進行其他非對話性質之口語活動 5 4 3 2 1

請就下列問題，抒發您的意見。為能確實瞭解您的回答，請您儘可能地詳細填寫。謝謝您的合作。

1. 您覺得要能與外籍人士進行英語會話，所須具備的個人條件有那些？

2. 您所使用的教材為何（如有使用講義，請稍加說明其內容）？ 選用該教材的原因為何？

3. 您多以何種方式或活動進行該科之教學？ 選擇該教學方式或活動之原因為何？

4. 您覺得那方面的英語會話教學研究，會對您在實際教學上最有幫助？

後記：

1. 非常感謝您耐心地填寫此問卷，您對此研究計畫的大力協助，我們銘記在心。為能方便我們處理回寄之問卷，可否請您在寄回問卷時，也順便寄回所附之明信片，並在「我已寄回填妥之問卷」處打√，您可以選擇將兩者分開寄回。您回寄的明信片，將可幫助我們日後寄上此研究之報告，與您分享我們的研究結果。
2. 我們相信您在教授英語會話方面，一定有許多寶貴的經驗與心得，但無法透過問卷傳達給我們。若您願意和我們分享您的心得感想、或其他相關議題，我們將不勝感激。您可以在明信片上「我願意參加訪談」處打√，我們於將日後再和您聯絡，安排以您方便為主的訪談時間。
3. 如果您有已準備好的英語會話課課程大綱及／或進度表，且不吝與我們分享，可否請您在寄回問卷的同時，也順便附上您的課程大綱／進度表，您可選擇先刪除上面有關您個人資料的部分。

再次地，我們向您說聲「謝謝」。

英語教學 *English Teaching & Learning*
27.2 (October 2002)

大學英語會話教學初探

摘要

此研究報告針對國內各英語或外語學系所開設之會話課程做一全面調查，範圍包括教師之授課心得、該科之教學目標、授課內容、上課方式、及評量方法，並就前述各層面之研究發現，做分析評估。研究發指出多數參與研究者對該科之教學具相當程度之意願及信心，課程內容及授課方式多採用間接而非直接式會話教學法，教學中仍多強調文法和發音之正確性及字彙之習得，而較輕忽與會話有關之言談和策略能力之培養及運用。本籍和外籍老師在該科之授課心得和方式上亦呈現某些差異。報告中並就可能如何改進我國大學階段之英語會話教學及未來英語會話教學研究方向，提出相關建議。

關鍵詞: 英語會話 課程設計 教材教法 大學 台灣

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A Pedagogical Study of "Textual Performance" as a Means of Teaching English Poetry

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Abstract

This paper discusses the pedagogical efficacy of the (primarily Western) theory and practice of performing literary texts in the teaching of English poetry to Taiwanese students. The theory and practice of "textual performance" includes (1) the Western oral tradition of "elocutionists"; (2) contemporary "performance rhetoric"; (3) the modern "aesthetic field"; and (4) the "Readers Theatre" and "Chamber Theatre." The proposed pedagogy is student/performer-centered, with the teacher serving as facilitator. Fifteen practical steps are recommended for this plan of instruction: (1) sounding out the poem; (2) responding to the poem; (3) making "plain sense" of the poem; (4) stylistic transformation and translation; (5) dramatic analysis; (6) comparing responses; (7) physical and vocal exercises; (8) psychological readiness; (9) imaginative autobiography of the persona; (10) overview of poet's other works; (11) poem's subtext; (12) poem's action lines; (13) establishing a production concept of the poem; (14) performance as final aesthetic trial; and (15) evaluation of the pedagogy and the ensuing discussion. An English poem, "Those Winter Sundays"[1] by Robert Hayden (1913-1980), will be taken as an example (or case) in the discussion of this instructional plan.

Key Words: textual performance, interpreters' theatre, aesthetic field, production concept, poem's speaker (*persona*) , performer

INTRODUCTION

This paper[2] presents an instructional approach that uses the (Western) theory and practice of textual performance, also called "oral interpretation of the text," to

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[1] Selected from Perrine (53).

[2] This paper was written as a sequel to my earlier writing on the subject. Two of the most recent works in this field are Lee and Gura's *Oral Interpretation* and Yordon's *Roles in Interpretation*.

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teach English poetry. Based on the theory of "theatrical learning," which involves the processes of nonverbal, intrapersonal and interpersonal communication, this pedagogy is student/performer-centered with the teacher serving only as a facilitator in the classroom. This method is different from other, more conventional ways of teaching and learning poetry in several ways: here the instructor plays the role of mere facilitator; students move through silent reading, oral reading, and comprehension of an assigned text to its aesthetic adaptation and performance; students now read the poetic texts with their mouths, eyes, minds, and whole bodies—a holistic process of vocal, physical, and emotional/psychological engagement. It is expected that students of English poetry will profit greatly from this method of "acquiring" poems.

This paper has two parts. The first presents a brief introduction to and summary review of the theory and practice of textual performance; the second suggests a detailed instructional plan using Hayden's "Those Winter Sundays" as sample text or "case."[3] This poem's merits as classroom text are its plain language, its narration by a *persona* (speaker) with whom young students can identify, and its specific, concretized images.

THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF TEXTUAL PERFORMANCE

As an academic subject at the college level, Performance of Literature make take place within the departments of Rhetoric, English, Speech Communication, Interpretation, Speech and Drama, and Theatre and Dance. The performance of literary texts, which still combines a purely aesthetic involvement with the text and some form of (increasingly high-tech) staging mechanism[4], is "studied" by the research fields of drama (including Story-Telling Theater and Interpreters' Theatre, see Kleinau 2), rhetoric, aesthetics and reader-response criticism. Here I will summarize only those theories and practices that have a direct influence upon textual performance as a pedagogical tool in English poetry classes for non-native speakers of English. Let me therefore focus on (1) the Western oral tradition of "elocutionists"; (2) the "performance perspective" in contemporary rhetorical theory; (3) the modern "aesthetic field"; and (4) Interpreters' Theatre or, more specifically, Readers' Theatre and Chamber Theatre.

Historians, archaeologists, anthropologists and linguists generally agree that "man the talking animal has been universally inclined to share publicly the telling of stories, the reciting and dancing of poems, the staging of rituals and dramas"

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[3] An entire text of the poem is placed in the appendix at the end of this paper.

[4] Students in my Performance of Literature class have recently used multimedia equipment to strengthen the effect of their staging of poetry performances in the classroom or on stage.

(Thompson xi). The vast oral history of such performances, whose geographical range extended from Asia and Africa to Europe and Latin America, went unrecorded until the development of writing. It is mainly ancient Greece that gave birth to the performance of literature in the Western tradition, later known as the "Graeco-Roman, Judaic-Christian, European-American tradition" (Thompson xi). Textual performance, as it evolved in this tradition, came to be associated with the theory and practice of "elocution, expression, interpretive reading and simply interpretation" (Thompson xi).

While then the oral tradition asserts the "primary orality" of pre-literate peoples going back to the Indo-European civilization of 6000 B.C. and earlier (Foley, p.1), we may more pragmatically begin with the 18th-century British elocutionists who devoted their attention primarily to the English rhetoric that would be used "in parliament, at the bar, in the pulpit, and in public recitations and polite conversation" (Golden *et al*, 175).[5] Though divided into two major schools, the Natural School led by Thomas Sheridan and the Mechanical School led by John Walker, the elocutionists all stressed the importance of presenting oneself orally in an effective and powerful manner, which meant clarity of voice and appropriateness of gesture and movement. In the 19th century an American elocutionist, James Rush, submitted that the improvement of the quality of the human voice and its rhythm could be achieved by scientific methods (Robb 81-119). Still today an elocutionist is required not only to express himself/herself clearly, but also to look into his/her inner mind and draw upon imagination, intuition, "dramatic instinct" (Curry 235ff). The performer of literature today can learn from this elocutionist tradition how to present orally his/her feelings and thoughts naturally and properly, and how to melt his/her own life experiences into those embodied in the literary work (particularly the poem) being interpreted.

Contemporary rhetorical theory tends to focus on epistemic, argumentative, fantasy-theme, performance and narrative perspectives (Foss 249-56). It is of course the performance perspective that is most relevant to our discussion here. This is grounded in the metaphor of the theatre, treating rhetorical skills as verbal performances in our daily life. The *rhetor* thus not only interprets himself and his culture but also conveys messages to the audience through his/her performance. This rhetoric-as-performance can be interactional, contextual, episodic or improvisational. Thus this approach can teach those who are interested in the performance of literature how to understand and use the interaction between performers, texts, textual episodes, actual settings (e.g. the stage or classroom), and responses from the audience.

Aesthetics deals with art and beauty. From an aesthetic point of view we regard the literary work as an art object into which our own "aesthetic" appreciation and judgment are projected. Arnold Berleant, an American aesthetician, claims (49) that there is an "aesthetic field" in which four major aesthetic elements—artist, object, performer and reader/viewer/audience—interact in an "aesthetic transaction." He claims that an aesthetic field is "a unity in experience" (73) and that "the varying functions of object, perceiver, artist, and performer are indissolubly connected and interdependent." Berleant's notion, when applied to the performance of literature as a means of teaching English poetry, can help us to understand and appreciate the interaction of artist (poet), poem, performer and audience as a "unity of literary experience." In fact only when we start treating an English poem as an artistic object and its oral interpreter as himself an artist may we begin to truly engage ourselves in the unified and unifying aesthetic activity of poetic performance in the classroom.

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[5] See Golden 175. For further discussions of the elocutionists, see Golden 174-82, 189, 262-63, 327.

"Artists who work in Interpreters' Theatre are oral interpreters of literature" (Kleinau 2) who, since theater performance is always *live*, are in effect "actualizing [the] presentational form in literature" (Kleinau 5). Interpreters Theatre is "an umbrella term that includes both Readers' Theatre and Chamber Theatre" (Kleinau 2). In general, Readers' Theatre refers to "the reading of plays [and/or poems], with participants seated or standing behind lecterns," while Chamber Theatre, originated by Robert S. Breen in the 1940's, refers to "the staging of narrative literature" and explores "the complicated relationship between a story and the person who tells the story".[6] By showing and telling what happens in the narrative work, its narrator presents on stage the life experiences of the "work" as well as those of the original author, and seeks to establish an immediate sense of communion between the performance and the audience. Both theater forms in effect transform a literary selection from a mere literary work to a "text," that is, to the reader's/performer's own interpretive vision of it. In either solo or group performance, Interpreters' Theatre stages a literary text in a static or kinetic style in which voice, gestures/postures and other relevant theatrical elements are foregrounded. The focus is on the emergence of powerful images in the minds of audience members; thus the performer—and this is what our English poetry students may learn—must possess the skill to arouse the audience's empathy, to draw them emotionally into the literary experience being presented.[7]

As a method of "learning" English poetry, the performance of poetic texts is thus "revelatory" in the sense of "revealing" or "making clear" certain aesthetic, emotional, intellectual truths. Indeed, this praxis of performance is "potentially . . . revelatory to the performer [and] . . . to the listeners" (Long xiii). It is potentially revelatory to the performer insofar as through it we may understand the motivations the poet and/or his/her speaker or narrator. It is revelatory to the listeners insofar as they, whether or not they already "know" the text being performed, can share with the performers the experiences inherent in the text, experiences which they would not have had (felt, discovered) in their own silent reading. Long also claims (xiii) that this praxis is "physically, vocally, and psychologically engaging . . . [and] . . . a synthesizing process . . . [which engages] the capacities of all of us," since after all it demands the full participation of the performer as well as all the spectators. Silent reading is a much more passive activity in which we tend to pass over the words more quickly, while performing the poem makes very concrete all its words, attitudes and tone shifts, thus engaging our whole being. Thus textual performance is a synthesizing process inasmuch as it "forces us to evoke all of our experience with a text—our research into the meanings and significance of its words, our intellectual and emotional understanding of the speaker and the action in the text, and our physical and vocal experience of the sounds" (Long xii-xiv). This again is Berleant's notion of the aesthetic field: that "transaction" between/among poet/poem/performer/audience which occurs within a "unity in experience."

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[6] Breen suggests that the delicate balance between story and storyteller is like the harmonics of chamber music.

[7] Interpreters' Theater, a form of presentation in which background music, props, lighting, costumes or other stage designs remain optional, is practiced today in private clubs, libraries, bookstores, schools

The dictionary [8] describes "performing" as "executing," "fulfilling," "completing," "furnishing," "finishing." These are all aspects or functions of *doing*, of *action*: performance is in the first place a *praxis*. The performance of literature is a "doing" of literature. If a once-passive reader can "actualize" the poem by intensely "acting it out," he/she will much more directly and deeply come to know and feel the experiences contained and expressed in it (Long xiii). But this is almost by definition a praxis which can be extended beyond the immediate context of teaching poetry. The recent efforts of scholars[9] in this field have indicated that the performance of literature more broadly promotes cultural exchange as well as entertainment.

AN INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN

Based on the theory and practice of textual performance, the following 15-step instructional plan[10] is suggested as a possible classroom teaching strategy for teachers

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and professional theaters.

[8] See *Random House Webster's College Dictionary* (New York: Random House, 1997), 968.

[9] See Long & Hopkins, 1982; Thompson, 1983; Chen, 1993, 1995; Lee & Gura, 2001; Yordon, 2001.

[10] I derived these steps from Long and Hopkin's *Performing Literature* 52-57, and also from my personal experience teaching Performance of Literature, an elective course that I have been offering at the college level since 1993.

of English poetry to non-native English speakers.

Course Title: Performance of Poetry

Goal: To study English poetry through the performance of poetic texts
Lesson Plan: Teaching Robert Hayden's "Those Winter Sundays" by means of textual performance
Suggested Instruction Time: Approximately 8 hours[11]

Step 1 **Sounding the Poem**

Description: Read the whole text of Hayden's "Those Winter Sundays" aloud to get a sense of how this poem feels, especially in terms of its sound and rhythm. Repeating this practice slowly increases familiarity with and sensitivity to the feelings and thoughts revealed in the poem. Clarity and fluidity should be emphasized. Let the students get a preliminary impression of the poem through concretized images—visual (e.g. lines 2, 3, and 5), auditory (e.g. line 6), and tactile (e.g. lines 2 and 7)—which combine sound with sense. Draw their attention particularly to the alliteration and the fricative consonants in the poem, as these will be significant in the later performance stage.

Step 2 **Responding to the Poem**

Description: Raise as many questions as possible about this poem. This should be in effect a dialogue between the students and the poet through the poem. For example, why does the poet entitle his poem "Those Winter Sundays"? Who is the first-person *persona*, the speaker in the poem? How does the poet's craftsmanship affect the poem aesthetically? Why does the persona want to express his/her feelings this way? When and where does this poem "happen"? (What is its "communicative context"?) What does the speaker have in mind in different stanzas? The answers to these questions are crucial in enriching the students' understanding of the (possible) meanings of the poem, seen as an aesthetic object which can be "produced" or "performed."

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[11] This is 4 weeks for a 2-hour weekly class. This is of course flexible, depending on the instructor's expectations and students' command of English.

Step 3 **Making "Plain" Sense of the Poem**

Description: Look up the words which are not clear or do not seem to make sense at first sight—for example, "banked fires" (line 5), "splintering" (line 6), "the chronic angers" (line 9), "love's austere and lonely offices" (line 14). This will give the students a clearer linguistic and cultural understanding of the poem. Here the ethnicity of the persona (Step 2 above)—Hayden is an Afro-American—may also come back into play.

Step 4 **Stylistic Transformation and Translation**

Description: Ask students to rewrite the whole poem in their own English, which means to a degree transforming it stylistically, and then translate it into their native language (e.g. Chinese). When rewriting or translating the poem, the students should stick to the original text as faithfully as possible. This enables them to focus on the particular verbs, pronouns and other syntactic elements and strengthens the poem's sense within a cross-cultural "unity of experience."

Step 5 **Dramatic Analysis of the Poem**

Description: Write a brief dramatic analysis of the poem. Simply state what is happening to whom—on a literal level. Identify the speaker and any other characters (e.g. the speaker's father) in the light of their setting and interaction. The students may come up with a sentence like: "The speaker remembers the old days with his father, who took care of him on winter Sundays during his childhood." This step helps the students to establish an aesthetically solid and vivid production concept (as in the model of Interpreters' Theater) of this poem.

Step 6 **Comparing Responses to the Poem**

Description: Students can compare their own responses to the poem with those of their classmates, critics, other instructors teaching English poetry, and oral interpreters who have performed the poem in the past. Their may be different opinions/interpretations. For example, the description of the father's love for the speaker may be seen as universally valid or as culture-specific. Responses to the poem's imagery are useful to its study as a literary text and also constructive in performing the poem as an aesthetic object. Here the implied philosophy of life and the paramount feeling(s) of the poet should be located.

Step 7 **Physical and Vocal Exercises**

Descriptions: Now start preparing physically and vocally for performing the poem. Try to do some physical warm-ups and voice repetitions and tongue twisters in English.[12] Get yourselves—teacher and students—"up" to the necessary energy level. Whole-class exercises can relax group tensions and create an informal atmosphere, one conducive to sharing with one another the emotional rapport between the poem's speaker and each student performer. If possible also watch videotapes showing performances of this poem or poems with similar themes.

Step 8 **Psychological Readiness**

Description: Students at this stage need to become student-performers who can feel and envision the poem with their minds and not only their eyes. If the performance of the poem is to be primarily a solo rather than a group performance, each individual student-performer should try to calmly "see" the speaker's perceptions and feelings in the poem through his/her imagination and dramatic instinct. The student must, for example, identify him/herself totally with the speaker's psychological transition from "speaking indifferently to him" (line 10) to "what did I know of love's austere and lonely offices" (lines 13-14). Failure to approach a poem psychologically in advance will lead to a superficial or even distorted performance later, however physically engaged the performer may be.

Step 9 **Imaginative Autobiography of the Speaker**

Description: Write an imaginative autobiography of the speaker in this poem, who may need to be distinguished from the poet.[13] The students are asked to write these autobiographies in order to solidify their sense of the temporal and spatial context if the speaker's life. As students "flesh out" the speaker's experiences as recorded in the poem, they are "devising what the well-known director Constantine Stanislavski called a 'second plan,' a past, a background of details that make lives more imaginatively real to you" (Long 55). Such "fantasizing history" exercises may give students added confidence in wearing the *mask* of the speaker or *persona* (the Latin *persona* means "mask") when performing the poem in the classroom or on stage.

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[12] I invite dance and drama instructors from time to time to visit my class to help my students do these exercises, and my students love them and tend become more energized and dynamic.

[13] In the case of this poem the distinction may of course not seem necessary to make. However, many students tend to always equate speaker with poet and to write imaginative autobiographies of the poet. The teacher needs to be sensitive to this issue.

Step 10 **The Poet's Other Works**

Description: Next the students can consult other works by the same poet. This will help them to understand Hayden's style, tone and imagery in this poem, and perhaps the speaker's (also the poet's?) attitude toward his father, by looking at the style, tone, imagery and attitudes toward father-son relationships in other Hayden poems.

Step 11 **Subtext of the Poem**

Description: Identify the undermeanings, or, subtext, of the poem in a line-by-line analysis. This step is important because "…in a believable performance—be it of drama, poetry, fiction, or nonfiction—the performer utters not merely words but rather the subtext, the undermeaning, the reason for the utterance" (Long 55). Students must learn to read the lines, read between the lines and read beyond the lines in a literary text. For example, what is the background or subtext for "polished my good shoes as well" (line 12)? Answer to questions like this lead to discussion of the more subtle meanings—symbolic as well as cultural and psychological—of a poem and thus too to a more accurate oral interpretation during the performance.

Step 12 **Action Lines of the Poem**

Description: Find the actions described explicitly and implicitly by the speaker in the poem. The students must "find out what the speaker is doing with that utterance" (Long 55). In other words, this step forces students to clarify the nature and meaning of each action so that in the performance they may know how to express or suggest it. What manner, tone of voice, posture, facial expressions and/or gestures do students the speaker as adopting when the poem's last two lines are uttered? Regret? Puzzlement? Sudden understanding or enlightenment? Will the performer be able to mimic these feelings?

Step 13 **Establishing a Production Concept of the Poem**

Description: Students may now start adapting the poem to a script for performance—Kleinau (2) speaks of a work-text-script-production continuum—by memorizing their lines, devising needed background music (e.g., Afro-American jazz), lighting (e.g. "blueblack" to match the "blueblack cold" in line 2), stage props (e.g., an old, southern, American-style house in winter) and stage areas[14], and rehearsing the whole performance. prior to the final one in public. All of the designs may be based on a production concept decided upon by the students (Kleinau 40-42, 105-106, 206-208).[15]

Step 14 **Performance as a Final Aesthetic Trial**

Description: Either in the classroom or on stage, the student performers now perform the poem in front of an audience. They may be less nervous and thus their performance more convincing and well-received if performers keep in mind that some inevitable on-the-spot improvisation during the performance of the poem is allowable and even expected. It will also relax them to remember that the audience shares their aesthetic field: here the poet, poem, performers and audience become one. They should also bear in mind that this performance is not so serious, they are not training to become professional actors but simply learning to appreciate poetry.

Step 15 **Evaluation of the Performances and Ensuing Discussion**

Description: After watching (and listening to) each student's performance of the poem, the instructor and the whole class may want to evaluate and make comments, perhaps with reference to some of the above steps. One model for assessing solo performances is suggested by Long (134): here a rating of *certainty* is given interpretations that are faithful, specific, and appropriate to the persona's utterance; a *probability* rating is given interpretations based on weighted likelihoods; *possibility* is for interpretations that depend on the slightest of hints; and *distortion* is for a total misinterpretation of the poem.[16]

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[14] Kleinau and McHughes suggest nine areas for a performance, with major events taking place in the central area.

[15] Robert Breen's "Readers Theatre" is highly recommended to help students determine a production concept for "Those Winter Sundays."

[16] I would suggest that the most likely reasons for this are lack of preparation and/or failure to follow

Rating schemes based on points are not advisable for this teaching strategy. Much better are the comments and suggestions of peers (students who have been in the audience, whether or not they have also performed); these are arguably even more valuable than those of the teacher, given the "aesthetic field" in which, ideally, all have become immersed. A crucial question that can now be asked of all the students (whether or not they have actually performed that day) is: How do you feel about the poem "on the page" as opposed to the same poem "on stage"? This question may trigger their memories of personal experiences with regard to the study of English poetry, both in the traditional way and for performance, and thus lead into further discussions of the particular poem and of poetry in general.[17] The key point here is that if textual performance is a sharing of life experiences within the aesthetic field, then so may be the following critical discussion.

RAMIFICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The 15-step instructional plan presented above is not meant to replace other, more traditional ways of teaching English poetry. It certainly should not replace a close reading and discussion of texts. Rather, this is a "supplementary" curriculum design for the *learning* and *appreciation* of English poetry through performance. In conclusion, let me summarize and emphasize the benefits to the student of this teaching strategy.

First, motivated and facilitated by their instructor, the student performers play an *active* and *dynamic* rather than passive and static role in the classroom; this greatly enhances the development of creativity, imagination, aesthetic perception and aesthetic empathy. While still stressing listening, reading, interpreting and writing skills, textual performance helps students of English poetry to enter a wider aesthetic field that includes theater and culture as well as language and literary interpretation. Interpreting texts through performance combines the vocal with the physical and psychological/emotional resources of the students: this sort of active interpretation encourages them to identify with the poem's speaker (*persona*) and thus to explore

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the above-mentioned steps.

[17] There is also no reason why the discussion of Chinese/Taiwanese poetry—perhaps as it has been taught to students in high school in Taiwan—need be excluded from the discussion; a consideration of "comparative poetics" and even "comparative performance concepts" could be very fruitful. (After all, aren't the students inevitably "reading" Western texts through a sort of Chinese/Taiwanese "lens"?)

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their own life experiences, so that in effect there is established a kind of communion between the performer, the *persona* being performed and the original poet of the text.

Traditional ways of learning English poetry tend to be mechanical—emphasizing sound patterns, imagery and meaning on a more discursive level—or meditative, deeply reflecting on the central theme of the poem. Textual performance provides a natural and direct *experience* of the poem which supplements these methods. By foregrounding voice and gesture it stresses the role of the non-verbal in poetic expression. Furthermore, the praxis of textual performance opens us to the possible merging of literature with other aesthetic forms or media—music, painting, cinema, the internet. That is, this performative praxis of the aesthetic or human experiential field is potentially also a multi-media pedagogical praxis and as such a future-directed one.

Finally, the praise and positive suggestions of the instructor and other students following a performance, and the interest and excitement generated in ensuing discussions of poetry and life experience, not only encourage the students to keep participating in such activities but also give them a new and heightened sense of achievement and self-confidence in their ongoing study of English poetry. This is of course much more significant than a grade on a written or oral examination. In close conjunction with the boosted sense of morale of the entire class following such performances, this is what will most effectively promote, in the long run, the understanding, appreciation and love of English poetry in Taiwan.

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APPENDIX

Those Winter Sundays

Robert Hayden

Sundays too my father got up early
and put his clothes on in the blueblack cold,
then with cracked hands that ached
from labor in the weekday weather made
banked fires blaze. No one ever thanked him.

I’d wake and hear the cold splintering, breaking.
When the rooms were warm, he’d call,
and slowly I would rise and dress,
fearing the chronic angers of that house,

speaking indifferently to him,
who had driven out the cold
and polished my good shoes as well.
What did I know, what did I know
of love’s austere and lonely offices?

以西方文學表演學教授英詩之教學法設計

摘要

本文建議以西方文學表演學的理論與實踐作為一種教學方法來教授英詩。西方文學表演學的理論與實踐涵蓋 1)口頭敘述傳統，2)當代修辭學 （以表演為取向），3)美學領域，4)詮釋者的劇場（包括“讀者劇場”與“室內劇場”）等範疇。作為一種英詩教學法，西方文學表演學對表演者，觀眾具啟發性；它是聲音，肢體和心裡感情對英詩的完全投入；也是凝聚我們所有潛能的合成過程。在此種教學法當中，學生表演者為重心所在，而老師成為輔導者和促進者，他（她）從旁指導學生表演者在教室裡及舞臺上先行詮釋一首英詩作品以後再將其表演出來。至此，原作者詩人，英詩作品，學生表演者，與觀眾乃形成一個完整的美學領域。實際的建議教學步驟是（一）朗讀該首英詩；（二）與該首英詩對話；（三）理解該首英詩的意義；（四）將該首英詩在風格上予以轉換及翻譯（五）該首英詩之戲劇分析；（六）該首英詩各種評論之比較；（七）肢體與聲音的演練；（八）心理準備；（九）撰寫詩中說話人的想像自傳；（十）研讀詩人其他的作品；（十一）尋求該首英詩字裡行間的弦外之音；（十二）詩行字句的動作推敲；（十三）該首英詩之演出策劃；（十四）該首英詩之表演作為其美學領域的最後測試；（十五）此一教學法之教學評量與後續的討論。本文以羅勃．黑登（1913－1980）的英詩＜那段冬天的星期日＞為例[18]，設計一個映證此種教學法之實際教案提供讀者參考。

關鍵詞：文學表演學　詮釋者的劇場　美學領域　演出策劃

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[18] 此首英詩之中文譯文係選自彭鏡禧、夏燕生 譯著,＜那段冬天的星期日＞ *好詩大家讀：英美短詩五十首賞析*（台北：書林出版有限公司, 民 83 年), pp. 95-98

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Learning in English: The Survival Strategies of Hong Kong Students

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Abstract

One quarter of Hong Kong high schools use English as the language of instruction. It is claimed that this enables students to acquire English proficiency without sacrificing understanding. In fact, many students have difficulty making sense of their textbooks and tend to rely on guessing. This study compares the strategies of a proficient and a poor reader in an EMI school for dealing with unknown vocabulary. The subjects thought aloud in mother tongue as they read English texts and tried to decipher the meaning. As anticipated, the proficient reader used more context-based strategies than the poor reader and his reading style was typical of good readers of L2, i.e. he showed willingness to skip unknown words and return to them later. The proficient reader also used a global approach and had greater confidence in reading. However, the study also revealed that the poor reader had a larger vocabulary than expected, and that his poorer comprehension was due to other factors, including unfamiliarity with sentence forms, ignorance of syntax and over-reliance on 'survival' strategies.

Key Words: Hong Kong students, reading strategies, English medium education, unknown vocabulary, reading style

INTRODUCTION

Education in Hong Kong secondary schools is through the medium of either English or Chinese. Guidance issued by the Education Department (ED) in 1997 instructed 307 government-subsidized local schools to switch from English medium instruction (EMI) to Chinese medium (CMI) in Secondary 1 (Grade 7), beginning September 1998. At the same time, 114 schools were authorized to continue using EMI. Thus, approximately one quarter of the secondary school population continue to be taught in English and use English textbooks. However, it is generally acknowledged that many of the students in EMI schools have difficulty understanding the textbooks. A dedicated teacher will often re-write the textbook in note form to help students cope.

This case study looks at two students, Joe and Sammy, studying Secondary 6 in an EMI school and compares their strategies for dealing with unknown vocabulary. Both students were in the science stream. At the end of Secondary 5, they had taken their Hong Kong Certificate in Education (HKCE) examinations. Their scores in the reading comprehension section (Paper II) of the English and Chinese examinations were as follows.

Table 1

English and Chinese Reading Comprehension Scores

	English	Chinese
Joe	E	E
Sammy	A	F

The HKCE results in Chinese indicate some difference in L1 reading ability between the two. Joe could be described as an average candidate; according to Hong Kong Examinations Authority statistics, most students obtain grade D or E in this paper, whereas Sammy is one of the minority (one fifth) who fail it. Joe's grade in English is also the median grade for the cohort. By contrast, Sammy is clearly a good L2 reader; fewer than 5% of students score grade A. Joe and Sammy can therefore be classified as an average L2 reader and a good L2 reader in an EMI school.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Can L1 reading skills be transferred to L2? Twadell (quoted in Haynes, 1993) thought they could, but there seems to be a threshold level in the L2 (Anderson & Urquhart, 1984), below which it is difficult for readers to use their L1 skills effectively. Clarke (1979) found that his readers used different skills for different languages: competent readers might use high-level, global strategies in their L1, but when reading in the L2, they read word for word, and relied on low-level, lexical strategies. The HKCE results above indicate that although Joe is the better reader, he may not be able to transfer his L1 reading skills as effectively.

METHODOLOGY

Although case studies such as this one necessarily involve only small numbers of subjects, making it difficult to draw general conclusions from them, they are very useful for close observation of processes at work in individuals. In this experiment, the students were asked to read four short articles on topics familiar to teenagers, such as the Internet or cram schools. They were asked to express their thoughts aloud as they read. Each of the articles contained a number of words previously identified as difficult or unknown by 60 classmates. To check that there was context support for guesses, the articles were given to native speakers as a cloze test with those items deleted. The native speakers were able to guess many of the original words correctly and offered acceptable alternatives for the remainder.

Prior to reading, both subjects were given some training in thinking aloud while doing mental operations such as reading or calculating. Real time think aloud has been questioned as a method for collecting data, but there seems no better way to find out what people are thinking while on task. If subjects report afterwards, they may forget things or find the time to give the kind of answers they imagine the researcher wants to hear (Raimes, 1985). Ericsson and Simon (1993) found that on-task performance is not visibly affected by thinking aloud, so long as subjects are not asked to report things that are not actually going through their minds. In this study, the students were told they could think aloud in mother tongue, in order to make reporting easier for them. In order to test for overall understanding, the students answered five reading comprehension questions on each text and their answers were graded by three English teachers.

The object of the reading exercise was to find out how the readers coped with the texts and which strategies they used to deal with the unknown words and if the strategies they used were similar or whether they used the same strategies but with different outcomes. The taxonomy of strategies used for measurement was Yau's (1997) which turned out to be too detailed. Yau identified thirty-six strategies which she divided into three categories: literal meaning strategies, which are word based or use the grammatical function of the words; elaborated meaning strategies, which go beyond the literal meaning of the text to reach a more global understanding; and fix-up strategies, used when readers realize their understanding has broken down, these include skipping unknown words or reading on to see if the meaning becomes clearer with more context.

RESULTS

The study hoped to find examples of the pattern normally observed: namely that poor readers read at the lexical level and prefer word based, literal meaning strategies, while good readers make more use of local and global contexts, skipping unknown words while retaining the overall meaning. The results showed that while both readers used a wide variety of strategies, Sammy did make more use of sentence or global context whereas Joe tended to rely more on word based strategies as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Strategy Use

Occasions of strategy use	
Joe	138
Sammy	157
No. of different strategies used	
Joe	22
Sammy	24
Use of word based strategies	
Joe	28
Sammy	10
Use of context based strategies	
Joe	40
Sammy	75

These differences in strategy preference were reflected in reporting styles: Sammy tended to make sentence length reports, while Joe reported phrase by phrase. Sammy was more confident, willing to skip words and tolerant of ambiguity, Joe read more slowly and was reluctant to jump over unknown items.

The think aloud indicated that both students were quite good at guessing unknown words but that Joe's overall understanding of the texts was inferior. This was also apparent in his answers to the comprehension questions. Reading comprehension percentage scores were as follows:

Table 3
Reading Comprehension Scores

	1	2	3	4
Joe	45	45	54	74
Sammy	76	64	60	70

Joe's scores are less consistent than Sammy's, but he seems to have understood text 4 better; possible reasons for this will be given later. Sammy was unable to deal with some of the words in the texts, yet as a meaning oriented reader, he was better able to overcome limitations in proficiency (Block, 1992).

The think aloud revealed some surprises: Joe turned out to have a much better English vocabulary than his HKCE results might suggest. Not only did he guess many words successfully, but he also knew quite a few words that Sammy did not, such as 'allergy', 'symptom', 'ironic' or 'irritation'. Indeed, it seemed that the difference in the two students' comprehension stemmed not only from vocabulary or strategies, but also from Joe's lack of familiarity with syntax, his miscues and a tendency to focus on certain key words to construct meaning.

Focusing on key words, like nouns and verbs, to the exclusion of all other items, was a strategy Johnson and Yau (1996) encountered in their study of Hong Kong students' L2 reading. They term this a 'survival' rather than a reading strategy. Survival strategies focus on words rather than grammar and aim to complete tasks regardless of the meaning of the text. Students disregard 'extraneous' items in the sentence such as discourse markers, modifiers or prepositions. Instead, they use nouns and verbs to create a hypothesis, which is checked against domain knowledge. In reading comprehension tests, key words in the question are identified and mapped onto the text for the answer.

DISCUSSION

In this study, lack of familiarity with sentence forms and problems with syntax were major causes of misinterpretation. For example, Joe was confused by complex sentence forms and made mistakes with articles, present participle and personal pronoun reference in the following sentences (think aloud is in italics).

(1) Police from the Wan Chai organized crime squad made an important arrest yesterday.

..... *Wan Chai police yesterday organised a raid .. squad .. that was an action .. because it says organised a criminal .. a criminal activity .. criminal action...*

Here 'organized' is treated as a verb with 'squad' as its object. The confusion may be caused by series of noun modifiers – 'Wan Chai' and 'organized crime' - before the noun 'squad'. Joe also failed to see that the definite article cannot refer to 'Wan Chai', a well-known district of Hong Kong, and that 'squad' needs an indefinite article if it is to mean an activity or action.

(2) The ED has realized that screening children at age eleven and dumping the failures in schools where they have little hope of academic success, is unfair.

... they hope very little with regard to their academic success . .the ED .. places very little concern on their academic success .. the ED has little concern for the academic success of the children...

In this case, 'they' is taken to mean the ED. Again, the sentence is complex, this time because of the number of clauses, making it more difficult to connect the pronoun with its noun.

(3) There are many things wrong with tutorial colleges but at least they give students some confidence in the HKCE examination. So instead of cowering under the pressure of teachers' organizations, the Government should test the English teachers.

.... cowering .. even though the tutorial colleges receive criticism .. cowering is receive criticism...

Joe assumes it is the tutorial colleges that are cowering rather than the government. In this sentence, the order of the clauses is marked for emphasis. If the sentence had been written in the unmarked order, i.e. 'The Government should test the English teachers, instead of cowering under the pressure of teachers' organizations.' it might have been easier to connect 'cowering' with 'Government'. In his think aloud Joe was focusing on the key point of the sentence: that the Government should test English teachers.

As well as having difficulties with complex sentences or marked forms, Joe frequently misread words. Examples (4) and (5) below show the confusion that develops when he read 'disturbed' as 'distributed' and 'nowhere' as 'now there':

(4) Many users said the Internet had undermined their health and disturbed their work, but most people felt their social life had improved.

..distributed their work .. one part of work .. can be done on the Internet .. undermined their health .. influenced their health .. because this sentence is talking about a good thing .. and there is the word 'and' linking them..

Here the words are twisted to fit the hypothesis: that having one's work distributed is a good thing. A strategy based on syntax knowledge – the coordinating conjunction 'and' – was then used to deduce that 'undermined' must also be positive in meaning. The contrastive conjunction 'but' was ignored, but Joe mulled over the problem for so long, that he eventually spotted 'but' and realized that if 'improved' is in a contrastive coordinated clause, what went before must have a negative meaning. However, spending such a long time on the sentence is possibly due to the influence of test effect.

The extraordinary miscue in example (5) did not prevent Joe from understanding the sentence; nevertheless, if miscues like this happen often, it must make learning in English very cumbersome.

(5) Some regular users pretended to type or use a mouse despite being nowhere near a computer

.. even though .. now there is a computer nearby .. there are many regular users .. isn't it they pretended to type?

In example (6), the word 'only' is disregarded; the sentence loses its negative implication and becomes positive.

(6) Only 40% felt they had control of their Internet use, and some people said they needed to spend more and more time on line.

.. means they are not being controlled by the Internet .. probably that's the meaning .. they are controlling the Internet .. some people feel they need to spend more time on the Net.

These examples show that a hybrid technique of using regular reading strategies backed up by survival strategies, sometimes leads Joe to understand the opposite of what the text is saying. Such a technique sometimes works: indeed Joe was able to score higher than Sammy on text 4. Obviously if it never worked, students would not resort to it. The point is however, that unfamiliarity with sentence forms and lexical processing that ignores syntactical relationships between words, discourse markers, function words, marked forms, rhetorical devices and other characteristics of academic writing will often lead to interpretations that are deficient or just plain wrong.

CONCLUSION

In recent years there has been renewed emphasis on the importance of vocabulary size for effective reading (e.g. Nation & Coady, 1988; Laufer, 1997; Haynes, 1993).

This has partly been as a reaction against pedagogies which de-emphasize vocabulary and encourage teaching students to guess meanings. Joe has a large vocabulary and uses a variety of strategies to guess words, but after several years of secondary education, he still lacks the tools to read effectively in English. This indicates that he, and students like him, needs to know more about sentence forms, the syntactical relationships between words, the importance of discourse markers, etc. - a knowledge commensurate with his vocabulary knowledge. Joe's reading technique in L2 is no doubt different to what he uses in L1; his L2 technique is unreliable, leads to vagueness and occasionally causes complete misunderstanding. Unfortunately, little can be said in the present paper about ways in which the L2 reading program in Hong Kong schools could be improved. However, the idea that EMI students can learn effectively and improve their English at the same time deserves further study. The results used to support this claim are usually taken from research done on L2 medium education in Canada. Until recently, little had been done to compare the learning outcomes of students who learn in English with those who learn in Chinese. For one, the CMI program is new and in any case, since the return to China in 1997, the Hong Kong Government is firmly committed to mother tongue education. But such a study is also difficult because of the simple fact that it is the most academically gifted students who study in the EMI schools. For this reason, the writer plans to undertake a study comparing the outcomes of Hong Kong students using L2, with Taiwanese students of comparable academic ability learning in L1.

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透過英語學習：香港學生的生存之道

摘要

在香港的中學當中，四分之一的學校使用英語來教授課程. 學校宣稱這樣的方式可以使學生在不犧牲課堂理解度的情況下也可以獲得良好的英語能力。但事實上，許多學生在理解課本內容時常常有許多困難，而學生往往必須靠著臆測來了解課本的內容。這篇論文觀察兩位接受英語教育的學生其中之一是個程度較佳的讀者，另一個是程度較弱的讀者。在研究的過程中，當這兩位學生遇到他們不懂的字彙時，比較他們所選擇使用的閱讀技巧(策略)。從這比較的過程中可得知他們在閱讀文章時對於遇到困難字彙時的理解方式。閱讀能力較為優秀的讀者較常使用前後文的邏輯模式來推敲不懂的字彙。這樣的閱讀方式是在預料之中的。因為他的閱讀方式對於一個使用第二語言的人來說，是個典型優良讀者所使用的方法。譬如說，他勇於跳過他所不熟悉的字彙，並在讀完一段之後回頭看過字彙此時對於文章就有一個較為全面性的概念，且在閱讀的過程中獲得更多的信心。無論如何，這篇研究顯示出程度較差的學生所擁有的字彙量居然超過研究者所預期的，但這樣的結果其實是由其他原因所導致的，例如文法上的疏忽、不注意連接詞的使用和過度依靠猜測的方式，便成為這些學生唯一的『生存之道』。最後，對於學習英文來說，擁有大量字彙便可學好英文的看法並不是毋庸置疑的。尤其是在香港。然而，以相互比較方式的觀點來檢視學生可以在透過中文或英文的學習中是否可以達到相同的效果。

關鍵詞：香港學生 閱讀策略 英語教育 不懂的字彙 閱讀方式

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Reflection as an Integral Part of the Teacher Training Program

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Abstract

In recent years, the approach of 'reflection' or 'reflective thinking' has increasingly appeared in many teacher preparation as well as development programs. To become competent and reflective professionals, both teachers and teacher trainees are often encouraged to reflect on their own professional practice and review what they have done in their teaching career. Probably most people have heard of the term 'reflection', but few seem to have a full understanding of the underlying theories and main concepts of this approach. In this paper, some important concepts of the reflective approach will first be introduced and the reasons why it is widely accepted and adopted will also be explored. Then, based on the key ideas of reflection, two related activities, 'Journal Study' and 'Classroom Observation and Discussion,' will be presented. Hopefully, teachers' awareness of their inner values as well as beliefs will be raised to some extent, and their development and growth may gradually be initiated.

Key Words: reflection, reflective thinking, journal study, classroom observation and discussion

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a profession. For this reason, teachers should pursue professional development to sharpen their teaching skills and maintain the quality of the profession. In recent decades, the terms 'reflection' and 'reflective thinking' have increasingly appeared in many teacher preparation as well as teacher development programs. Teachers are encouraged to reflect on their own professional practice, to make explicit to themselves the assumptions that underlie what they do and then to review those assumptions in light of new perspectives and practices. Generally speaking, the adoption of a reflective approach and reflective thinking is widely accepted as helpful in developing the competence of teachers and teacher trainees.

In this paper I will first introduce the reflective approach and explore the reasons why it has been widely accepted and adopted. In addition, the underlying principles and benefits of the approach will also be discussed. Finally, on the basis of the reflective approach, I will design a number of activities with a view to help teachers become aware of their inner values as well as beliefs and gradually initiate their own development and growth.

THE REFLECTIVE MODEL

In this part, I will first explore the reflective model by critically discussing the underlying principles and identifying its benefits.

Some important concepts of reflection have been offered by a few key theorists, each emphasizing different aspects of the process. For example, Dewey (1933: 9) has defined 'reflection' as 'active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends.' The features of reflection that Dewey has emphasized concern the sense of wonder or unrest at a problem and the purposeful, reasoned search for a solution. Reflective thinking is initiated by uncertainty and guided by one's conception of a goal or end-point. He has thus suggested that the development of reflection should involve the acquisition of certain attitudes (e.g. of open-mindedness) and skills of thinking (e.g. reasoning and ordering thought).

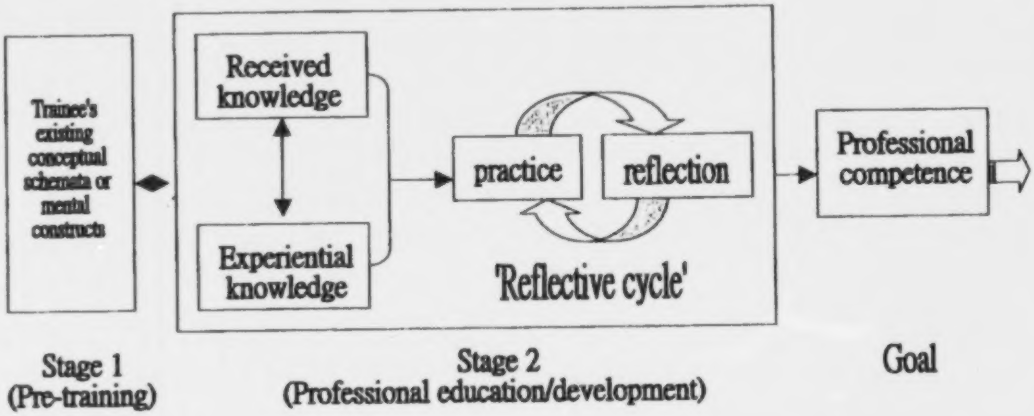
Besides, Schon (1983, 1987) has stimulated a great deal of interest in teacher education with the concept of 'reflection-in-action,' derived in part from Dewey's notion of reflection. The process of 'reflection-in-action' is a reflective conversation with the materials of a situation (Schon, 1987: 31). Additionally, Schon has put forward the idea of the 'reflective practitioner,' on which the key principle in contemporary approaches to teacher education is built. To be a reflective practitioner, a teacher is supposed to review practice, explore alternatives, and come to an understanding of how personal improvement and development can be achieved.

Furthermore, Wallace (1991) has proposed the reflective model, explaining how teachers pursue professional development out of their inner selves. He has defined the reflective teacher as follows:

> 'Professionals who are willing to be open to new ideas, while being at the same time, practical and sensible in selecting and applying them. It seems desirable that such teachers should be flexible, capable of further independent study, able to solve problems in a rational way, able to combine speed of response with depth of understanding, and so on' (Wallace, 1991: 26).

Figure 1

Reflective Practice Model of Professional Education/Development


Trainee's existing conceptual schemata or mental constructs
Received knowledge
Experiential knowledge
practice
reflection
'Reflective cycle'
Professional competence
Stage 1 (Pre-training)
Stage 2 (Professional education/development)
Goal

It can be seen from the Figure 1 that there are three stages in the reflective practice model: the pre-training stage, the professional education/development stage, and the goal. In the first stage, the pre-training stage, teachers have background knowledge in their minds, the so-called 'schemata.' In the stage of professional education, teachers gain their received knowledge[1] and experiential knowledge[2]. Teachers will then make decisions in their classrooms based on the interaction of received knowledge and experiential knowledge. After classroom practice, teachers will re-think and reflect on the teaching process. As a result of the reflection, teachers may or may not change their classroom practice. This cycle focuses on putting theories into practice, reflecting on the advantages as well as disadvantages of the teaching process, and helping teachers to attain their goals and increase their

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[1] Received knowledge: In the reflective model, the trainee becomes acquainted with the subject matter, research findings, theories, and skills which are widely accepted as part of the content of the profession (Wallace, 1991).

[2] Experiential knowledge: In the reflective model, the trainee has the necessary professional knowledge-in-action developed by practice of the profession and by reflecting upon these actions (Wallace, 1991).

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professional competence.

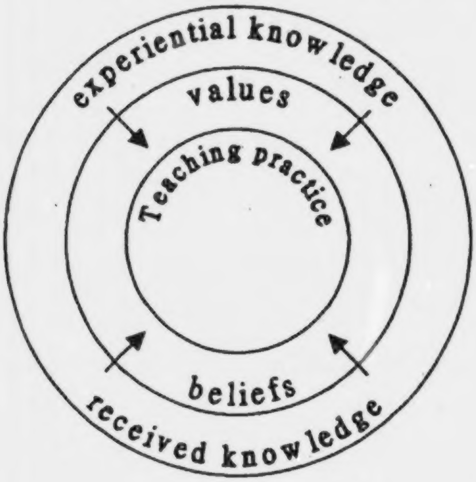
Wallace's reflective model is quite clear in explaining the process of teacher development. Other researchers have responded to this model and asserted the link between reflection and development. Lange (1990: 250), for instance, has stated that this process allows developing teachers to experiment with their knowledge and experience and to examine their relations with their students, their values, their abilities, and their successes as well as failures in a realistic context.

Moreover, McDonough and Shaw (1993) have also agreed that teachers act as 'reflective practitioners, developing by reflecting on their professional experience.' They further put forward two advantages of the reflective model. First, this model empowers teachers to manage their own professional development; second, this model helps to stir teachers' motivation to innovate.

Drawing from the main concept of Wallace's model, Kontra (1997: 244) has put forth his own model, which is shown in Figure 2, to support the importance of reflection. He is of the opinion that training involves trying to open up trainees' thinking. Instead of making them work in the way their trainer does, training should help the trainees find, articulate and develop their own teaching theory, and the methods or the techniques that match it. In conclusion, he summarizes that reflection broadens the trainers' training contexts and provides another way of impressing teachers with what they will gain from the training context.

Figure 2

Kontra's Training Model (1997: 247)



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TWO ACTIVITIES OF THE REFLECTIVE APPROACH

Based on the reflective approach discussed above, I will in this part design two different ways of structuring the process of reflection, 'Journal Study' and 'Classroom Observation and Discussion.' I will then demonstrate how these methods can be employed to train teachers' reflective thinking. Hopefully, teachers' awareness of their inner values as well as beliefs can thus be raised. Additionally, the author's reflection on each activity will also be made clear.

Journal Study

To help teachers effectively reflect on their teaching and to develop reflective thinking, I would like to encourage teachers to keep journals and then to share the interesting or illuminating parts with their colleagues in a session, called the 'Journal Study' session.

Four Steps of 'Journal Study'

How should the journal study be conducted? Technologically speaking, the procedures for keeping a weekly journal are relatively simple, but the process does require discipline and patience. In this program of teacher development, I will follow the four steps, adapted from Bailey and Ochsner (1983: 90).

Step 1: Introduce the 'Journal Study' and identify a focus for the weekly journal.

Before beginning to keep a journal, teachers should be introduced to the idea of keeping a journal and be given some guidelines for it (see Appendix A). They can then discuss possible entry headings, types of entry, timing, materials, writing styles and so on. Besides, they may also set some goals for their journal-keeping and talk about what aspects or topics they are going to focus on. Once they have the topic decided, 'classroom management' for instance, they can pay more attention to this aspect and jot down anything they experience related to the issue. With a clear goal as well as topic, they tend to stand little chance of being at a loss for what to write. This is also helpful for those who are not in the habit of keeping a diary or who have no idea of what to write.

Step 2: Keep the journal.

Teachers systematically record events, details and feelings about their current language experience in the diary. They are encouraged to feel free to reflect, experiment, criticize, doubt, express frustration and raise questions in the diaries. Otherwise, the main benefits of keeping a language learning or teaching diary in teacher development – personal development and insights about teaching – will be negated (Bailey, 1990: 218).

Step 3: Revise the journal entries and prepare for the 'Journal Study' session.

Teachers periodically review their journals, looking for patterns or significant events, and issues they would like advice on. A summary is then prepared to share with other teachers in the journal study session.

Step 4: Discuss the journal in the 'Journal Study' session.

Factors identified as being important to language learning and teaching experience are interpreted and discussed in the journal study session. Ideas from the pedagogical literature may be added at this stage. Relevant reading materials concerning the handling of problems raised in the journal study session can also be recommended.

Author's Reflection on 'Journal Study'

A journal is a teacher's written response to teaching events. Here, keeping a journal serves four purposes. First, events and ideas are recorded for the purpose of later reflection. Second, the process of writing itself helps trigger insights about teaching. Writing in this sense serves as a discovery process. Third, this approach may offer access to the hidden affective variables that greatly influence the way teachers teach and students learn. Fourth, by sharing their journals with their colleagues and by exchanging ideas, teachers are likely to gain confidence in their ability to learn or to teach, to make sense of difficult material or situations and to benefit from collaborative study. To sum up, provided with an opportunity to keep journals, teachers may effectively reflect on their teaching, become aware of the importance of their own reflection, and be stimulated to create a meaning for new ideas, which are rooted in their own practice.

Sample journal entries as well as a summary of a journal study session are provided in Appendix B.

Classroom Observation and Discussion

Another approach that teachers can use to reflect on their teaching practice is " Classroom observation and Discussion." Most teachers have come across classroom observation in the context of assessment of their teaching practice during teacher training. Usually teachers are inclined to equate being observed with being assessed and are often reluctant to have someone observe them in the classroom. My concern in this activity, however, is the teachers' own professional development and the improvement of teaching and learning in the classroom. In other words, the aim of observation is not concerned with assessment, but with exploring through observation aspects of what goes on in classrooms for the benefit of the teachers' own development.

Three Steps of 'Classroom Observation and Discussion'

The three steps of conducting the classroom observation and discussion, adapted from Richards and Lockhart (1994: 24-25), are presented as follows.

Step 1: Arrange a pre-observation orientation session and identify a focus for the observation.

Before the classroom discussion, teachers, including the observers and those being observed, will participate in an initial discussion session, in which they can decide which class to observe this month, the nature of the class observed, the kind of material being taught, the teacher's approach to teaching or the kinds of students. In addition, the observers will discuss with the teacher who will be observed what s/he is interested in, the focus of observation, and how data will be collected. Some suggested focuses of the observation, observation tasks (see Appendix C), the format of classroom observation for the observers (see Appendix D), as well as the self-evaluation form for the observed (see Appendix E) will also be discussed. Besides following these guildelines, the observed may also be provided with the chance to design his/her own observation sheet if s/he is interested.

Step 2: Carry out the observation.

The observers visit the class of the observed and take notes, using the observation sheet and procedures that both parties have agreed on. With a focus, the observers know what to look for and the value of observation can thus be increased. For example, the observers can be given a task such as collecting information on student participation patterns during a lesson.

Step 3: Arrange a post-observation session.

In the discussion session that follows the classroom observation, the observers report on the information collected during the lesson and discuss it with the observed. The observers' insights will be summarized, and the general theoretical questions raised will also be listed and dealt with. Together the observers in conjunction with the teacher who has been observed develop a short joint statement summarizing their reflection on the previously agreed upon area of observation. Both the observation sheet and the self-evaluation sheet can be collected, and if the teacher wishes, placed in his or her personnel file or teaching portfolio, and put in the teachers' teaching files kept by the school administration or teaching portfolios for future reference.

Author's Reflection on 'Classroom Observation and Discussion'

Observation involves visiting a class to observe different aspects of teaching. Teachers in many language programs are often reluctant to take part in observation or relevant activities since observation is often highly related to evaluation. In order for observation to be regarded as a positive rather than a negative experience, observation in this teacher development activity is presented as a way of gathering information about teaching, not a way of evaluating teaching. Therefore, this 'classroom observation activity' is mainly based on the 'peer observation,' (Richards and Lockhart, 1994: 12) in which some teachers observe their colleague's class. This also belongs to the so-called 'reflective mode' (Fish, 1995), in which both the observers and the observed together explore the lesson, learn from the experience and refine their own professional development. It is through observation and exploration that they are likely to gain awareness of their teaching behaviors as well as their consequences. Also, some alternative ways to teach will be generated. Hopefully teachers who take part in this type of activity may construct or reconstruct teaching on the basis of awareness gained from the teaching observations

CONCLUSION

The adoption of a reflective approach and reflective thinking is widely accepted as helpful in developing the understanding and competence of teachers and teacher trainees. In this essay, the reflective approach of teacher education is examined and the underlying principles as well as benefits of the approach are also probed. Based on the reflective approach, a number of activities have been designed. In this paper, I devise two common, but easily neglected, activities: 'Journal Study' and 'Classroom Observation and Discussion,' in which the reflective approach is incorporated.

The main aims of these activities are to empower teachers to manage their own professional development and to enable them to be more reflective as well as more effective in their teaching through collaborative learning.

However, the author's reflection on this approach is that it is not a training recipe to copy. It is an approach to be applied after careful analysis to determine if it can be incorporated into a teacher's context. Through participation in a reflective approach that is suitable for their teaching context, it is hoped that teachers may become more aware of their inner values and beliefs and thus contribute to their own professional development. What is more important, a never-ending process of thinking, questioning, challenging and changing will hopefully be induced in teachers.

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Yi-Hsiu Lai received her MA degree with distinction from the University of Warwick in the UK. She is currently an English teacher at Chien-Chen Senior High School in Kaohsiung. Her areas of interest include teacher training, ESL/EFL reading, and computer-assisted instruction.

Appendix A
Guidelines for Journal Writing

(adapted from Kennedy, 2001; Richards and Lockhart, 1994: 16- 17)

Why keep a journal?

We are often caught up in our teaching practice without spending enough time to think about what has happened to us that day, what it meant to us, how we will change our approach to a certain task in the future. Unless committed to paper, amusing incidents or illuminating insights that occur to us may at times slip from our memory.

How often to fill it in? & How long should it be?

At least one entry is required for one week. The entry could be based on a particular lesson, a week's lessons, a particular theme, or just be a general entry covering a range of issues that are important to us at that time. The entries should be about a page.

What should the entries be about?

Here are several reflection questions, adapted from Richards and Lockhart (1994: 16-17), to guide journal entries. You do not have follow each of them; instead, you should address any questions that are important to you.

Questions about the students:

1. Did you teach all your students today?
2. Did students contribute actively to the lesson?
3. How did you respond to different student's needs?
4. Were students challenged by the lesson?
5. What do you think students really learned from the lesson?

6. What did they like most about the lesson?

7. What didn't they respond well to?

Questions about your teaching:

1. What did you set out to teach?

2. Were you able to accomplish your goals?

3. What teaching materials did you use? How effective were they?

4. What techniques did you use?

5. What grouping arrangements did you use?

6. Was your lesson teacher dominated?

7. What kind of teacher-student interaction occurred?

8. Did anything amusing or unusual occur?

9. Did you have any problems with the lesson?

10. Did you do anything differently than usual?

11. What kinds of decision-making did you employ?

12. Did you depart from your lesson plan? If so, why? Did the change make things better or worse?

13. What was the main accomplishment of the lesson?

14. Which parts of the lesson were most successful?

15. Which parts of the lesson were least successful?

16. Would you teach the lesson differently if you taught it again?

17. Was your philosophy of teaching reflected in the lesson?

18. Did you discover anything new about your teaching?

19. What changes do you think you should make in your teaching?

Questions about the school:

1. What do you find good about the school?

2. What do you find unhelpful about the school?

3. What do you find irritating about the school?

4. Are you well supported?

5. What are your colleagues like?

6. What do you think of their approaches?

Questions to ask yourself as a language teacher:

1. What is the source of my ideas about language teaching?

2. Where am I in my professional development?

3. How am I developing as a language teacher?

4. What are my strengths as a language teacher?

5. What are my limitations at present?

6. Are there any contradictions in my teaching?

7. How can I improve my language teaching?

8. How am I helping my students?

9. What satisfaction does language teaching give me?

Appendix B
One Example of Journal Study

Journal-keeping:

This morning while I was having an English class with forty male students, three of them dozed off, which seemed to be quite common in class. One of them even started to snore. The noise he made was so loud that it distracted other students' and caused them to chat with one another. As usual, I asked the students sitting next to those who had fallen asleep to wake them up. To my surprise, one of these three students angrily yelled out four-letter words as he half-opened his eyes.

I was shocked by his response and became speechless as if I had been struck by lightening. Never in my teaching career have I encountered such a terrible situation. My brain was totally blank. While the other 39 pairs of eyes watched me, I was so nervous that I was really at a loss of what to do. Angry as I was, I tried my best to calm down and to continue my teaching without scolding the student. What I desired most at that moment was for the school bell to ring so that I could dismiss the class.

As the bell rang, I hurried back to my office in order to get away from this horrible incident and be alone for a moment. Later during the lunch hour, the student, who had uttered the four-letter words, came to see me, expressing his apology. What should I do? Should I forgive him or should I give him some punishment as a kind of reminder?

April 10, 2002

Discussion with my colleagues:

After this incident, I asked some senior teachers for advice about how to deal such a tough situation, and I have learned a great deal form the discussion with them. For example, timing is vitally important. The moment I meet some unexpected incidents or stressful situations, I should, in addition to staying calm and keeping a clear mind, be prepared to deal with these tough situations immediately. If I escape from it and put it off, the result sometimes may not turn out to be better. Instead, the effect and impression of my further work on students may probably be diminished to some extent.

In the case of the student who swore in class, I should have said something to the student about his inappropriate behavior, instead of feeling frightened or even embarrassed. Also, I should have analyzed the situation and identified the causes of such an impolite act. I could have used this incident as an opportunity for the whole class to have a discussion about the reasons why we are not allowed to swear or how we can avoid using inappropriate language in our daily lives. In this way, a tough situation would have been handled more effectively, and the whole class may have learned something valuable from such an incident.

April 12, 2002

Appendix C
Focuses for the observation

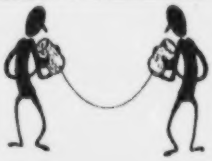
(Richards, J. C. and C. Lockhart, 1994: 24- 25)

1. Organization of the lesson: the entry, structuring, and closure of the lesson.
2. Teacher's time management: allotment of time to different activities during the lesson.
3. Students' performance on tasks: the strategies, procedures, and interaction patterns employed by students in completing a task.
4. Time-on-task: the extent to which students were actively engaged during a task.
5. Teacher questions and student responses: the types of questions teachers asked during a lesson and the way students responded.
6. Students' performance during pair work: the way students completed a pair work task, the responses they made during the task, and the type of language they used.
7. Classroom interaction: teacher-student and student-student interaction patterns during a lesson.
8. Group work: students' use of L1 versus L2 during group work, students' time-on-task during group work, and the dynamics of group activities.

Appendix D

The format of classroom observation

(for the observer) (adapted from Kennedy, 2001)

Classroom observation
Name of Teacher observed ____________________ Class ____________ Date ____________ Name of Observer ____________________
Area of focus: (Write here the agreed upon area for the focus of the observation)
What I observed:
My comments:
The teacher's response:  Our agreed upon summary:

Appendix E
The self-evaluation form (for the observed)

(adapted from Kennedy, 2001)

Classroom observation – self-evaluation form	
Pre-observation	**Good ---- Poor**
Pre-observation meeting to discuss the context of the lesson	
The focus of the observation was negotiated.	____ ____ ____ ____
The method of observation was agreed upon.	____ ____ ____ ____
The dates and times of the observation and debriefing were agreed upon.	____ ____ ____ ____
Observation	
The observation methods were appropriate for the situation.	____ ____ ____ ____
Discussion points were recorded in an appropriate way.	____ ____ ____ ____
Timing for feedback was confirmed.	____ ____ ____ ____
Post-observation	
Active and professional discussion of findings	____ ____ ____ ____
Appraisee self-appraisal encouraged	____ ____ ____ ____
Summary for observation discussion	____ ____ ____ ____
Any other points for reflection:	

教師職訓課程中之內省法

摘要

近年來，“內省”及“內省思考”的方法常出現在許多教師職前或在職進修的課程。為了培養有專業能力、能內省熟思的教學專家，不僅是老師或是實習老師常常被鼓勵來內省自我的教學、審視自己的教學情況。或許大多數人都聽過“內省法”，但是能夠完全了解其理論架構及主要內涵的人卻不多。本文除了介紹“內省法”的理論架構及重要觀念、探討為何它廣被接受與採納的原因，也根據“內省法”的要義，設計並呈現兩種相關的內省法：“日記研究”及“教學觀摩討論”，希望藉此能喚醒老師自我內在價值和信念的意識，並且激勵老師不斷地自我發展及成長。

關鍵詞：內省　內省思考　日記研究　教學觀摩討論

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Impersonation as an Optional Module of Language-Teaching Activities

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Abstract

Language-teaching activities can be constructed from and analyzed into modular elements (e.g., impersonation, storytelling, information transfer, and problem solving). Impersonation may be an essential module of some activities (e.g., drama and role plays). It can also serve as an optional module of other activities. This paper examines impersonation as an optional module of language-teaching activities. The optional module is considered within the frame of each of 26 different types of classroom activities. Examples are cited to illustrate the incorporation of impersonation into the activities and the ways in which it comes into operation in conjunction with another module or other modules. The result of this study has several implications for teaching and research. First, this study lends some support to the view that classroom activities may be composites of modular elements. Second, impersonation is congruous to almost all other modules. Finally, impersonation widens the range of language use inside the classroom and enhances its real-world relevance.

Key Words: impersonation, modules, classroom activities, language teaching

INTRODUCTION

Impersonation in this article refers to the act of assuming a role in a make-believe situation. In the literature on language teaching, such an act is often spoken of as 'role-playing' or 'a role play.' But for clarity and convenience of discussion, I will draw a line between (1) the act of assuming a role in a classroom activity and (2) an independent classroom activity where the act of assuming a role occurs as a modular element. I will refer to the former as 'impersonation' and the latter as 'a role-playing activity.'

Language teacher's resource books usually deal with classroom activities in terms of such straightforward categories as games, role plays, songs, problem solving, discussions, and so on. However, I have noticed that classroom activities are often complex. They can be a composite of a number of different modular elements. As my collection of language-teaching activities show, impersonation, game playing, information gaps, and problem solving seem to be the most active modules. For example, a game may look like a role play because participants assume the roles of, say, animals. A single discussion activity may contain modules like information gaps, problem solving, and decision making. Therefore, the view that classroom activities may be simple (containing only one module) or complex (containing more than one module) might represent an alternative, if not more accurate, approach to language-teaching activities or techniques.

Role-playing and empathy-taking activities are important techniques of experiential learning (cf. Kohonen, 2001; Tudor, 2001). Based on personal observation, impersonation is a widespread module in a great variety of TESOL classroom activities. Within the frame of an activity, impersonation sometimes arises as an integral module, as in drama, skits, role plays, simulations, and miming activities (cf. Shie, 2001). Other times, impersonation acts as an optional modular element of the activity.

The present study is intended to explore impersonation as an optional module of language-teaching activities. In the remainder of this paper, impersonation will be considered within each of the frames of 26 different types of classroom activities. All these activities are self-contained language teaching activities (e.g., games and role plays) or involve well-established language learning tasks (e.g., storytelling and information transfer). How and why impersonation is incorporated into these activities will be discussed briefly. Examples will be cited to illustrate the ways in which impersonation is activated in the activity. Most of the examples are drawn from studies on language-teaching methodology, teacher's resource books, and TESOL textbooks commercially available. Some of the examples have been designed by the author. In order to save space, I will summarize the examples instead of using direct quotations. However, references to the sources of examples will be given in the text, including page numbers, for interested readers' consideration.

LISTENING, READING, AND WRITING TASKS

It is a truism that impersonation can elicit production of oral language. And yet a module of impersonation can also be added to a listening, reading, or writing task. For example, students can imagine that they are guests at a party. They eavesdrop on conversations (recordings) and try to guess what the people are talking about. The object of the listening task is to decide whether the students would like to join any of the conversations (Gebhard, 1996, pp. 150-1; Porter & Roberts, 1987, p. 180). In addition, in many business writing and reading tasks, as in Zyzo and Heins (2000), students are requested to read and/or write in roles. Being in a role helps contextualize

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the reading or writing tasks and provides the tasks with specific perspectives and purposes. In fact, tasks in business class at a regular school often cannot do without impersonation, for the learners are not yet businesspeople. If they are to read, for instance, a letter of inquiry and answer it, they have to do the reading and writing in roles as businesspeople.

GAMES

Impersonation is highly congruous to language-learning games. Many games in teacher's resource books contain a prominent module of impersonation, as can be seen in Lee (1979) and Shie (in press). In particular, of the 40 games in a book of games by Hadfield (1990), as many as 20 require players to act out given roles. Impersonation increases the fun of playing games, and the inherent playfulness of games can appease impersonators' anxiety. One example is pair work in which one student takes on the identity of another person known to both members of the pair. The student playing the role describes himself/herself while the other student tries to guess the identity being assumed (adapted from Woodward, 1997, pp. 285-6). Another example from my own practice occurred when I asked my students to play the role of a lie detector. The class imagined that they had just bought a state-of-the-art lie detector that would beep and utter, 'You tell a lie,' whenever it detected a lie. In groups the students conducted an acceptance test by making 10 oral statements of fact about themselves in front of the lie detector, which one of the group members impersonated. But one and only one of the statements had to be a lie, which (the rule) the smart lie detector also knew. The object of the role-playing game was to see if the lie detector could stand the test. The beeps and level intonation of lie-detectors' utterances added to the fun of the game.

SONGS AND CHANTS

Impersonation in songs and chants is not so widespread as it is in games. But it can nonetheless be incorporated into these two types of activities, adding variety and special interest to them. For instance, Reilly and Ward (1997, pp. 60-1) propose a language-learning song for children with the following lyrics:

> I am a robot. I am a robot. I am a robot man. …
> I can sit and I can stand. I am a robot man.
> I can shake you by the hand. I am a robot man. …

While singing the song, as Reilly and Ward propose, the children impersonate the robot man and do the actions, making their arms and legs stiff while walking, sitting down on a chair, and so forth.

Turning next to chants that involve impersonation, the following example should be illustrative:

Five little monkeys jumping on the bed
One fell off and bumped his head
Mummy phoned the doctor and the doctor said
'No more jumping on the bed!' (Phillips 1999, pp. 31-3)

A group of children may act out the chant while the whole class chants the poem. It is presumable that, while chanting the rhyme, children can learn the chant and understand the meanings better if they perform the actions.

STORYTELLING

To give the story teller a new perspective or to provide a new reason for the storytelling, we may integrate impersonation into a storytelling activity. As Jones (2001, p. 158) suggests, we may ask students to imagine that one of the main characters in a story they have read is, say, their uncle. From this new perspective they tell the story to their partner. In addition, with more advanced classes we may have students act out a courtroom scene that involves a lot of storytelling (cf. Brims, 1985).

Gossiping is a very interesting activity that involves simple storytelling. I have designed an activity for my students to gossip about me. They were requested to imagine that 12 years had drifted by since they graduated and they ran into me somewhere. One of their conversations went like this:

A: Hey! You're Jack. Right?
B: Oh, hi, Rose. Long time no see. …
A: You've changed a lot. What do you do now?
B: …
A: …
B: You know, I miss our old English teacher John very much. In my eyes, he was the best teacher in the world.
A: I miss him, too. But he has changed a lot. He is no longer a teacher now. … I saw him at the Taipei Train Station last month.
B: Really. Where was he going?
A: Nowhere. He was playing the guitar in the station. It's true.
B: You don't say! Did you say hello to him?

A: No. I didn't want to embarrass him. But, I gave him 5 dollars.

TPR AND DICTATION

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a teaching method developed by Asher (1969, 1986). TPR activities are built on physical responses to oral commands in the target language. Nowadays TPR activities are used mainly as supplemental activities rather than as the core of an entire language course. A large number of TPR activities have been designed and collected in teacher's resource books.

Impersonation allows students to perform TPR activities in fanciful situations. To illustrate, students may impersonate a person from Mars, who has studied English from a book but has never really used it. Other students invite the Martians in, have them sit down, light a cigarette, and the like. The Martians take all oral commands literally and do not interpret anything (Blohm, 1997). Younger students can pretend, for example, that they are a bird, miming the bird's actions in accordance with the following oral commands:

> You're going to fly.
> You're walking.
> You're running.
> You're running faster.
> You're flapping your wings. … (Linse, 1999)

Impersonation can also enhance the real-world relevance of a TPR activity. In a low-intermediate foreign language class or above, students may give oral commands instead of the teacher. One situation I have set up for a TPR activity is group work in which one student enacts the role of a movie director and gives oral commands to the other group members as to how to act out a specific scene. Another situation is group work in which one student takes a photo of all the other group members, giving oral instructions as to the desired poses, positions, gestures, and facial expressions.

For the same purposes, dictation can also be combined with impersonation. The routine process of dictation in the language class can be pluralized via impersonation. Phillips (1993, pp. 30-1), for example, has introduced a dictation exercise in which the teacher acts as a cassette player. While taking the teacher's dictation, the students may say the commands written on the board (such as *play*, *stop*, *fast forward*, and *rewind*) and the teacher does what they say. I have also found that in a business English class, pairs of students can play the roles of a boss and his/her secretary. The boss gives dictation to the secretary, who will then do his/her best to write down the text or organize the boss's remarks into a business letter.

INFORMATION GAPS AND JIGSAWS

Information-gap activities have acquired great prominence in ESOL textbooks that are available. In a dyadic information-gap activity, one student has information that the other does not have, but needs, to complete a task. Some language-teaching methodologists (e.g., Ellis, 1990; Nunan, 1991) have noted that information-gap activities may involve one-way or two-way tasks. In a one-way task, one student has all the information that needs to be communicated to the other student to get a job done. For example, one student is given a simple drawing, which the other student cannot see. The former describes the drawing and instructs the latter to reproduce it. In a two-way task, both participants have some information that needs to be conveyed to their partner to get the job done. For example, each member of the pair is given a picture. The two pictures are the same except for some minor differences. Without looking at each other's picture, the two students describe their own picture and find the differences between the two. Of course, information-gap activities need not center upon description of pictures. Information gaps may also be created through two schedules, stories, or any other kind of text.

In doing an information-gap activity, students pay much more attention to information or messages than to language structures or forms. The activity is goal-oriented. The participants have to interact and communicate with each other in order to reach a prescribed goal. In addition, the processing and formulation of utterances are done in real time (cf. Johnson, 1996, p. 45). The activity allows participants to practice asking for and conveying information, requesting repetition and clarification, and negotiating meanings within a manageable framework. Therefore, the communicative process that takes place is no doubt authentic. However, I have noticed that, strictly speaking, the activity itself does not necessarily have much real world relevance. Information-gap activities prescribed in textbooks often use pictures which is very different from real life experience available. As a matter of fact, in the real world one may as well directly observe two different pictures and find the differences without any verbal communication. When the teacher or students feel tired of such widespread find-the-difference exercises, impersonation can authenticate the purpose for performing the information-gap task at hand. Take for instance an activity involving diagram description presented in Shrum and Glisan (2000, pp. 188-9). In the paired activity, one student impersonates an interior designer and calls the other student (acting as the client) about where in his/her living room some pieces of furniture should be placed. Since it is a telephone conversation, the interior designer must describe the suggested locations of the given pieces of furniture only verbally. The interior designer talks with a floor plan for the living room with furniture in it, while the client has a blank floor plan and a list of the pieces of furniture. When they have finished, they can compare their diagrams to see if the two versions are the same. As I see it, this activity, containing an added dimension of impersonation, can work more interestingly since it has more real-world relevance.

The jigsaw activity is a complex version of the information-gap activity. Different pieces of information are given to three or more students (or groups of students). With each piece of information functioning as, so to speak, one piece of the jigsaw puzzle, participants have to pool and/or arrange them in order to complete a task. A well-known classic example of the jigsaw activity is "the strip story" (Gibson, 1975). In the activity, each of the participants is given a different part of a short story. After memorizing their part, they get together, pool their information orally without looking at the given text, and reproduce the whole coherent text of the story.

For the same purposes of altering a dyadic information-gap activity, the teacher may have impersonation and the jigsaw principle built into an activity simultaneously. As described in Harmer (2001, pp. 237-8), students work in several groups; each group listens to the recording of one witness describing the sighting and appearance of a UFO. Imagining that they are researchers or police officers, each group collectively fills out a UFO report form based on the recording. And then all the groups put together their information, end up with a good general understanding of the mysterious event, and develop an oral or written report.

OPINION GAPS AND REASONING GAPS

An opinion-gap activity involves the exchange of opinions (out of personal preference, feeling, belief, or attitude), as opposed to the exchange of information, as a basis for communicative practice (cf. Prabhu, 1987; Tudor, 2001). Discussing opinion exchange activities, Brown (2001, pp. 186-7) gives the following warning:

> Moral, ethical, religious, and political issues are usually 'hot' items for classroom debates, arguments, and discussions. ... Some beliefs are deeply ingrained from childhood rearing or from religious training, among other factors. So it is easy for a student to be offended by what another says.

This warning seems to imply that the exchange of opinions about sensitive issues may cause or intensify divisions in the class. But it would be a pity to avoid using hot topics if students are really interested in them. A positive way out of this dilemma is to incorporate impersonation and opinion exchange. In assuming the roles of certain famous politicians, for instance, students may feel free to pronounce opinions on a political issue. Since the opinions articulated need not represent the students' personal positions, the possibility of causing divisions or confrontations can be minimized. Another beneficial effect on classroom dynamics is that impersonation can afford students greater latitude to articulate unusual or even extreme opinions or viewpoints without worrying about their self-image or self-esteem, because it is the character the impersonator portrays that is usually perceived as being responsible for what the impersonator says in the activity.

A reasoning-gap activity involves "deriving some new information from given information through the process of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns" (Prabhu, 1987, p. 46), as is the case in which students work out a teacher's timetable on the basis of some given class timetables. In modern-day ESOL textbooks, one can easily find activities that put students in the role of a detective. The detective examines some given information or clues to determine who the murderer or thief is. Such an activity requires students to bring their reasoning power into play, and accordingly, represents a common type of reasoning-gap activity with an element of impersonation. Activities of this kind can widen the range of classroom exercises and cover things that are not directly related but interesting to students.

INFORMATION TRANSFER

In an information-transfer activity, participants transfer information from a written or oral text to a different mode of representation (e.g., outlines, forms, tables, charts, and diagrams), or vice versa (cf. Alderson, 2000, pp. 242-4; Stern, 1992, p. 197). A fairly common example is constructing or completing a family tree while listening to a description of a large family. The participants have to identify the required information in the source mode and then transform or transpose it into the diagrammatic representation.

In real-world language use, we often have to deal with information in various forms, such as gathering needed information from a timetable and reading a map to find a desired route. Therefore, realistic impersonation lends itself to information-transfer activities. By making impersonation and information transfer co-occur in an activity, we can further increase the real-world relevance of the activity.

In more advanced tasks, information transfer involves complicated decoding and encoding processes. Activities of this type are not few in the business communication class. For example, in a lesson on sales review in Brieger and Comfort (1994a, pp. 63-6), students work in pairs playing the role of the company's sales representatives. Student A describes to Student B the performance of a product (sales and prices) over the last 6 years, while Student B completes a given graph to show the performance of the product.

QUESTIONING AND INTERVIEWING

Asking and answering questions is an age-old teaching technique in the classroom. It is compatible with most, if not all, classroom activities, including role-playing ones. Playing such roles as reservations agents, front desk clerks, and ticket agents, students are involved in the question-and-answer activity naturally. And operations of such scenes as information desks, press conferences, and quiz shows are bound to give rise to inquiry or questioning activities. In fact, it need not take a specific setting or situation for students to do a question-and-answer activity in roles. As Morgan (1990, p. 41) proposes, students may bring a personal photo to class and work in small groups. Pretending to be (one of) the person(s) in the photo he/she has brought to the class, each group member takes turns answering questions from the other group members.

Interviewing is also a widely used interaction technique in the classroom. Communication scholars (e.g., Wood, 2000) have identified distinct types of interviews in terms of their primary purposes. They include information-giving interviews (e.g., doctors explain symptoms to patients), information-gathering interviews (as with opinion polls and census taking), persuasive interviewes (e.g., a salesman persuades a customer to buy a product), problem-solving interviews (e.g., a student discusses his difficulties in a course with his professor), and employment interviews, just to name five. All these situations are potential settings for interviewing that can fit in with a language-teaching syllabus.

Furthermore, interviews can also be integrated with fanciful impersonation. The literature on classroom techniques (e.g., Gardner, 1996; Pint, 1985; Wen, 1999) contains many examples of interviews based on fanciful impersonation. For example, students may take on the role of an explorer from an adventure story or a famous person from a historical account and give an interview to a modern-day journalist. Interviews of this type integrate reading and speaking practice and combine individual and pair work.

Krashen and Terrell (2000) contend that "the best interviews are those which focus on interesting events in students' own lives" (p. 102). However, I have found that, in a class where students are well-known to one another, it is often not easy to motivate students to get involved in a personalized interview, presumably owing to lack of information gaps. In this case the teacher may provide reasonable purposes for students to participate in the activity by adopting a role-playing interview, where information gaps can be easily created by splitting the given information between the interviewer and the interviewee.

DISCUSSION, DEBATE, AND NEGOTIATION

Group discussion may contain an element of impersonation, with each group member assigned to represent a particular position or viewpoint on a subject, issue, or proposal. This can be accomplished in the context of, for example, a simulated formal meeting (as in O'Driscoll & Pilbeam, 1987) or a simulated talk show (as in Ikeguchi, 1998). The various views and ideas thus induced can enrich the dynamics of discussion. The high degree of compatibility between discussion and impersonation contributes to the fact that most activities in some discussion workbooks (e.g., Rooks, 1991, 1994) involve impersonation.

Debate can be viewed as a special form of discussion. It can develop students' ability to listen critically and make analytical responses rapidly, which is of high value in today's information-intensive world. In comparison with ordinary discussion, debate is usually more competitive. Besides, formal debate requires a dichotomy of positions. Debaters argue either for or against the proposition under debate. There is no middle course. An episode in my EFL class may serve as an illustration. Once my students had a hard time taking sides when they were preparing for an informal debate. I thought 'whether money is more important than love' should be an easy subject for them (intermediate-level students) to debate on. But most of them thought that both money and love were important to them and did not know how to debate. To get them started I asked them to imagine that they were either a material girl they knew or an impoverished artist looking down upon material desire. As a result, they put forth many interesting arguments, resulting in a rather heated debate.

Another special form of discussion is negotiation. As Brieger and Comfort (1994b) remark, "many aspects of life involve negotiation" (p. 92). Managers negotiate new procedures with their staff. Buyers negotiate with their suppliers about payment terms, delivery arrangements, and maintenance contracts (as in Ellis & Johnson, 1994). Divorcing women negotiate for their alimony and the custody of their children. And two men in a love triangle negotiate with their love. All these are promising situations for role-playing negotiations in the language class. Brieger and Comfort write:

> …negotiation is about achieving a result which both sides can benefit from, or at least live with…. Critical to the success of this philosophy is an understanding of the hopes and fears of your partner in negotiation. Only if you can get into his or her shoes are you likely to come up with a solution that is genuine meeting of mind. (ibid.)

It is for this reason that I consider impersonation to be a necessity in the negotiation exercise in the classroom. Students need to get out of their selves and put themselves into other people's shoes so that they can get new experience and new perspectives on things.

Negotiations in business, public issues, or international affairs call for excellent command of language and considerable related knowledge. They seem suitable only for advanced language classes. But there are less demanding negotiation exercises that can be used in lower-level classes. In quite a few low-intermediate EFL classes, for example, I have implemented without difficulty two negotiation exercises that put students in everyday roles. In one exercise, students impersonate parents and children negotiating about their weekly allowances. In the other, students impersonate a husband and wife negotiating, in a light-hearted way, about splitting their housework more evenly. These two negotiations do not require any specialized working knowledge. As long as the students know how to use conditional clauses, frequency adverbs, and such common expressions as *work hard*, *do the laundry*, and *pick up the children*, they will be able to get involved in the activities.

DECISION MAKING

In a decision-making activity, students are given some information as a basis for making a decision in one way or another or for reaching a consensus through group discussion. Three decision-making formats offered by Renz and Greg (2000) are applicable: decision by consensus, decision by majority vote, and decision by negotiation.

A decision-making discussion may be based on the third-person viewpoint. That is, discussants deal with an issue as something that is not directly related to themselves. For example, discussants can talk about the general issue of litter from the third-person viewpoint and decide on some effective ways to prevent people from littering. If we want this activity to have an added feature of impersonation, we may change the third-person viewpoint into the first-person one. Students may imagine that the problem of litter has become very serious in the city where they live and that they are city officials who want to have a clean city. They call a meeting to decide on an anti-liter campaign (Matthews, 1987, pp. 13-6). Decision-making activities in which students role play a formal meeting are very common. Another example is impersonation of a jury that has to reach a verdict upon a case and pass sentences (as in Foster, 1996; Hill, 1985). These activities focus on a specific theme and aim for a clear conclusion.

The demand of a decision-making discussion can be reduced if the information input contains a number of alternatives for the decision makers to choose from. A case in point is the activity in which students act as personnel officers and make employment decisions (as in Magy, 1999, pp. 11-2; Nation & Newton, 1997, pp. 252-3). The personnel officers are given applicants' qualifications. Each applicant represents an alternative for the discussants to choose. They only need to consider the options according to given criteria, justify their choices, and come to a conclusion.

Not all decision-making exercises include group discussion as a process of making a decision. For example, one of the decision-making exercises I have designed makes use of the situation of the recent computerized lottery fever in Taiwan, and only one single student makes the decision in the activity. In groups of four, students pretend that they are all in-laws. One of them has just won a grand prize in the computerized lottery. The other three members, each making up an appeal, strive to borrow money from the prizewinner. The prizewinner listens to his/her in-laws' appeals and decides whether to lend money to each of them. The prizewinner may also pretend to be a miser and decide not to lend any money to them at all if he/she is satisfied with none of the appeals.

Decision-making activities can also be conducted in such a way that they include a module of impersonation and involve both individual work and group discussions. An example adapted from Dudeney (2000, pp. 51-2) may be illustrative. In groups of six, students role play the situation in which they have won a competition to host a celebrity dinner party. They are given a list of 16 famous people, from which they can select eight as guests of the dinner party. Individually they visit websites to find out about the famous people. When they have finished, they get together and decide whom to invite. And then, with a blank round-table seating plan they decide how to arrange the guests and themselves around the table so that everyone will have somebody interesting to talk with. This complex activity comprises a number of modules and can be thought of as a small project work.

PROBLEM SOLVING

Problem solving is a very active module in language class activities. It is usually combined with other modules, especially impersonation. A typical type of activity where impersonation and problem solving are joined together is socio-drama, introduced by Scarcella (1978). In socio-drama students enact a series of solutions to a social problem that takes the form of an open-ended story containing one easily identifiable conflict. A sample socio-drama story Scarcella (ibid.) provides is about a dilemma a young woman recently married has to solve. The young woman and her widowed mother-in-law have a difficult relationship, partly because the young woman is not a good cook. On her mother-in-law's birthday, she bakes a cake but the cake is completely burned. As soon as she quickly shuts the oven door to prevent the smoke from escaping, her mother-in-law urges her to serve the cake immediately. At this point the impersonators have to enact the solutions to the dilemma.

Problem solving is the core classroom activity of the participatory approach (cf. Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The curriculum that this approach underlies is not predetermined but results from an on-going context-specific problem-posing and problem-solving process. Motivated by personal involvement, the class tries to catch up on anything significant that has just happened in their lives. More specifically, the teacher elicits problems in the students' lives and has them discuss the problems and suggest solutions. The difficulty with such classroom practice, as I see it, is that students could feel reluctant to pose their personal problems in the class because normally they don't want their privacy invaded. To the students with a strong sense of privacy, problem-solving activities would be more agreeable if they are coupled with impersonation.

Problem-solving impersonation may be put into practice individually, in pairs, or in groups. In the literature there are many instances of activities where individual students simulate writing a letter to the problem page (such as Dear Abby) of a newspaper, asking for advice about or solutions to their fictitious personal problems. Alternatively, in pairs or small groups, students may role play calling a talk show for advice on their fictitious dilemmas of conscience or emotion (as in Thrush et al., 1997, p. 57).

The fictitious problems in problem-solving activities may have correct answers or solutions that need to be reasoned out, as is the case in which puzzles or riddles are worked out (as in Collis, 1996) or the case in which a character in an ultra-short crime story is identified as a murderer or thief (as in Wright, 1989, p. 126; Helgesen et al., 1999, pp. 23-4). Such activities give practice not just in using the target language but in thinking in the target language as well.

A problem-solving activity may also be open-ended. The fictitious problem may have more than one solution, and, if this is the case, none of the solutions can be justifiably said to be the only right one. Such an activity may be regarded as containing a module of decision making, in the sense that participants have to evaluate possible options and decide what they think is the best course of action, as in socio-drama, discussed in the beginning of this section. In many open-ended problem-solving activities, students work in small groups, whether in roles or not, using the target language to discuss and solve the problem (as in Fournier, 1990, pp. 33-44; Ur, 1996, p. 127).

PROJECT WORK

Richards et al. (1992) define project work as "an activity which centers around the completion of a task and which usually requires an extended amount of independent work by an individual student or by a group of students" (p. 295). Although much of a piece of project work takes place outside the classroom, some of its pre-tasks and post-tasks are performed inside the classroom. The central task, for example, may be to hold a rummage sale for charity, to teach English to children for a week, or to produce a brochure for foreign tourists about one's home town (Legutke & Thomas, 1991, ch. 5).

The central task of a piece of project work, unless it is performance of drama, usually does not involve impersonation. However, to meet the need of the central task, its pre-tasks or post-tasks may include impersonation work. For one thing, before the central task of holding a rummage sale, students may role play ushering guests in, selling items, collecting money, and so on, especially when the sale will be held in the target language. For another, students need to impersonate radio disc jockeys before the central task of recording a simulated pop music program onto a CD and playing it in class or a school cafeteria. The pre-tasks include collecting information about the songs, singers, lyrics, and the like, and writing DJ introductions to the songs (adapted from Tsang, 1994). Before recording the introductions and songs, students need to rehearse, which is essentially impersonation.

RANKING TASKS AND SEQUENCING TASKS

In a ranking task, students rank a set of items by priority of importance, personal preference, or any other aspect of consideration. A ranking task often serves as a pre-task to prepare students to engage in a discussion or role-playing activity. In a role-playing activity in Raffini (1996, pp. 35-7), for example, students imagine that they have applied for a summer job at a local corporation. They have to decide in which of the following six divisions they would like to work: production, research, advertising, processing, management, or personnel. They rank the six divisions in terms of relevance to their desired career in the future so that they will have something more definite to say in the main activity that follows, be it an interview or otherwise.

Ranking work may also co-occur with impersonation as a modular element. A very common example is the situation in which students pretend that they are on a sinking ship and have to rank the given items (such as an ax, a shaving mirror, a walkman radio, and chocolate) in terms of their importance to their survival (as in Fuchs et al., 2000, p. 397; King, 1997, pp. 56-9; Rogers, 1978, p. 54). In the role-playing situation, the students are more likely to dedicate themselves to the ranking task and reach greater depth of engagement.

In a sequencing activity, students arrange component parts in their proper or logical linear order. Common component parts to be arranged are jumbled sentences or paragraphs (as in Widdowson, 1992) or confounded pictures or cartoons (as in Bassano & Christison, 1995, p. 77).

To date I have not found in the literature any instance of an activity where impersonation and sequencing work unite. But it is still possible to conjoin these two modules. I have designed two activities of this type. In one of the activities, the impersonators are requested to agree upon an agenda of a business meeting by sequencing some given items to be discussed in their proper order. In the other, students play the roles of the coaches of a baseball team. Led by the head coach, they determine the batting order of the lineup, with given information like the names of the baseball players, their defense positions, batting averages, on-base percentages, numbers of stolen bases, and so on. The main purpose for uniting impersonation and sequencing work in these two activities is to create or increase the real-life relevance of the sequencing task itself.

BRAINSTORMING AND SURVEYS

Brainstorming aims to facilitate group discussion and problem solving. It is particularly useful when unconventional ideas are called for. Brainstorming may include the following steps: (1) warm up, (2) brainstorm, (3) clarify ideas and eliminate redundancy, (4) evaluate ideas and select the best (cf. DiSanza & Legge, 2000, p. 113). In Step 2, evaluation or criticism of ideas is forbidden. "Because putting limits on ideas dampens the creative process, wild and offbeat ideas are encouraged" (ibid.).

In the language class, brainstorming is used as preparation for role-playing, discussion, and problem-solving activities. A shortage of ideas will block the development of classroom work. A brief brainstorming session as a pre-task can generate ideas about possible and advisable courses of action for the main task that follows. For example, Ur (1988, pp. 176-7) uses brainstorming as a pre-task for problem-solving role plays. As described in Gardner (1996), students brainstorm in advance the types of questions they might ask during the follow-up role-playing interviews. Besides, Markee (1997, p. 140) suggests that students do the brainstorming before a decision-making discussion in a make-believe situation.

Like brainstorming, a brief in-class survey is usually conducted as preparation for the activity that follows. The in-class survey usually takes the forms of interview (as in Cameron, 2001, p. 117) or questionnaire (as in McKay & Tom, 1999, pp. 146-7) to collect information for the subsequent discussion or written work. A special survey activity in the language class — known as 'find-someone-who' — requires students to get up from their seats and walk around the classroom to ask their classmates questions. The object of the inquiries is to find someone in the class that matches each of the relative clauses on a list, such as (find someone) who likes red, whose father is a teacher, and who had a bad dream last night.

A make-believe situation can contextualize an in-class survey in such a way that a specific and reasonable purpose for the survey is provided, as exemplified in the following example of Brieger and Comfort (1994a, p. 94). Students act as the marketing team of a company which manufactures soap and hair shampoo. With some hints the marketing team designs a questionnaire to find out what ideas consumers have for a new shampoo. When they have finished, they try the questionnaire on other members of the class. Therefore, impersonation can also be integrated into a survey activity in the classroom.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper I have tried to show that impersonation can exist in various classroom activities in addition to such role-playing activities as drama, mime, and role plays. The activities that may include impersonation as an optional module range from relatively simple activities like song and dictation to more elaborate ones like project work and many different kinds of discussion activities.

Several conclusions or implications can be drawn from this study. First, classroom activities can be constructed from and analyzed into such modules as impersonation, songs, problem solving, ranking, and information gaps. The view that a classroom activity may be a composite of two or more modules is useful for classroom researchers. For example, there have been two opposite observations on the use of and students' feeling toward role plays (cf. Shie, 2002). Some researchers or teachers hold that role-playing has beneficial effects on language classes, such as lowering inhibitions and increases learning motivation, others think differently. The observational disparity could have been caused by variations in performance, language proficiency, and personality. More importantly, role-playing may mean more or less different things to different researchers or teachers. Some may think of role-playing as an act while others may treat it as a whole activity. If we treat role-playing activities in terms of modular elements, we could be more specific about the activities in question and, accordingly, could reduce some observational disparity.

Second, impersonation as an activity module is congruous to almost all other modules. Variety is the spice of life. The flexible combinations of impersonation and other modules can provide material writers and classroom practitioners with an adequate inventory of classroom activities to break the monotony of learning resulting

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from familiar routines. Viewed from the angle of modules, classroom activities become malleable. Thanks to such an active module as impersonation, classroom activities can be changed, slightly or greatly, and take new forms to make language learning more stimulating and enjoyable.

Finally, within the frames of various activities, impersonation allows students to use a much wider range of language patterns and functions with clear purposes in specific situational contexts. It takes students out of their selves and allows them to go beyond spatial and temporal limits. The classroom thus can be extended into the outside world. Accordingly, the real-world relevance of classroom activities can be enhanced significantly.

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角色扮演當作語言教學活動之附加成份

摘要

語言教學活動可由模組成份建構之，亦可分解為模組成份（如：角色扮演、故事陳述、資訊轉換、問題解決等等）。角色扮演可做為戲劇等活動之固有模組成份，亦可做為其它活動之附加模組成份。本文旨在探討語言教學活動中附加之角色扮演成份。本文依次在二十六種教學活動之架構中討論附加之角色扮演成份，以活動實例說明角色扮演如何融入這些活動，以及如何與其它模組成份協同運作。本文有三點結論。第一，課堂活動可由模組成份建構之，本文對此觀點有若干程度的支持。第二，角色扮演和其他幾乎所有的模組成份是相容的。第三，角色扮演在課堂中擴大語言使用的範圍，並增加語言使用與真實世界的關聯性。

關鍵詞：　角色扮演　模組成份　課堂活動　語言教學

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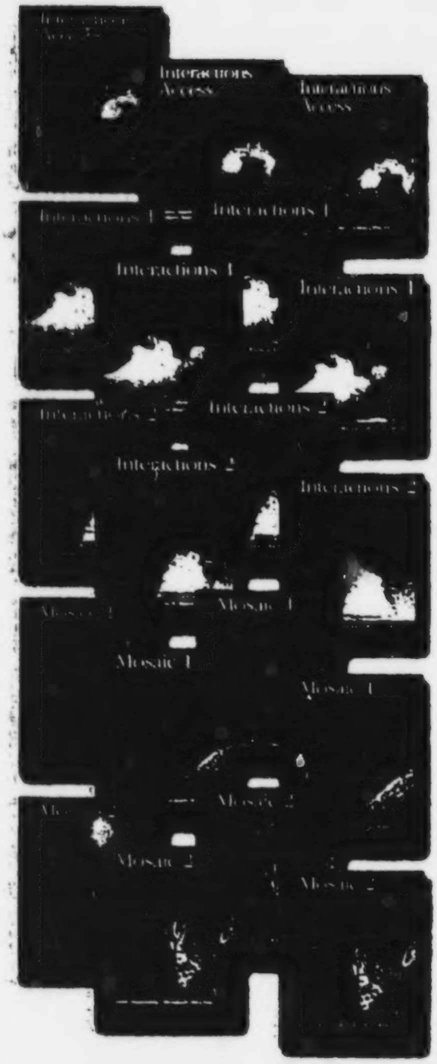

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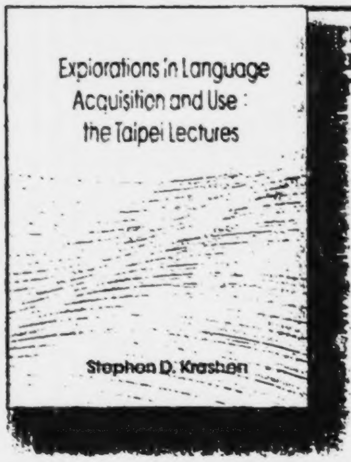
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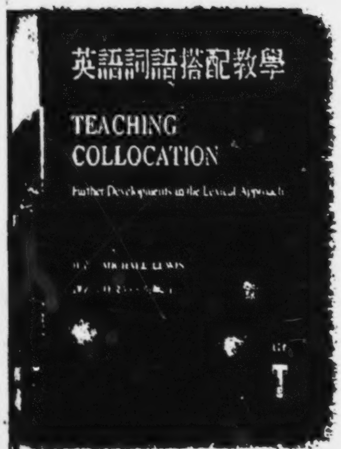
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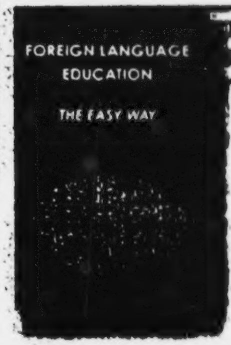
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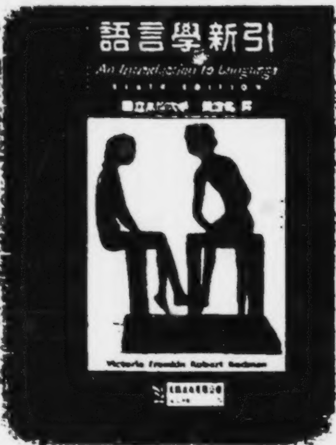
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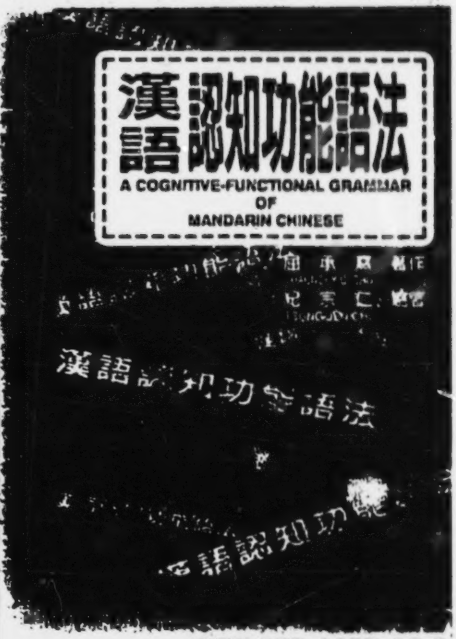
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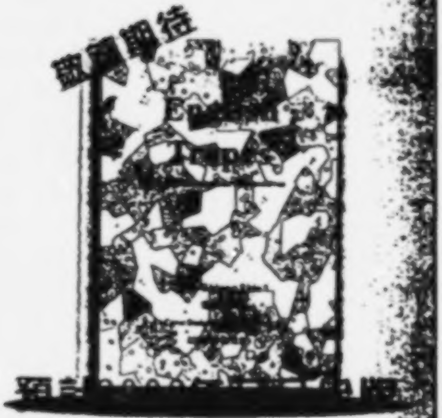
本書特色

本書探討並介紹英語教學遊戲之各種趣味來源及遊戲模式，並介紹遊戲與其他類型活動整合之方法，有助於教師設計、修改、執行適合自己學生之遊戲，書末附有五十一個經實驗成效良好之遊戲摘要，本書引用過去數十年相關文獻計三百五十餘，對各級學校教師(尤其是中小學教師)均有相當之參考價值。



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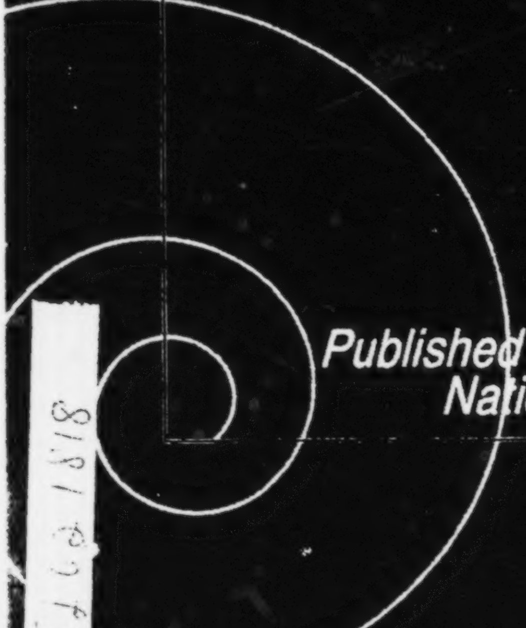

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《英語教學》(*English Teaching & Learning*)為學術性刊物，旨在鼓勵英語教學研究、促進學術及經驗交流、並提升英語教學水準。凡有關國內外實證性英語教學研究成果及理論之探討或評介、嶄新具創意之教學法介紹、成功教學經驗分享、課程研發、課程評量、教材評量、師資培育及其他與英語教學相關議題（如雙語教育、心理語言學、社會語言學、外語習得等）之研究報告，均歡迎投稿。

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英語的音節結構：理論與教學

王備五

國立高雄師範大學

摘要

本文簡要介紹英語音韻學裡有關「音節」研究上的部分新進理論，說明英語音節的內部結構。並舉例證明音節為語音現象的重要單位，許多音韻現象只能在音節內發生。目的在於幫助英語學習者，更進一步瞭解英語的部份音韻現象。希能藉由提供相關理論背景，作為英語教學者工作上的參考。

關鍵詞: 英語音韻學 音節 音節性子音 音節劃分 語音響度

壹、前言

近廿年來，音韻學理論研究上最重大的發展，就是由杭士基與哈利（Chomsky & Halle 1968）的線性理論，快速轉換為非線性的多層次理論。這種新分析的研究重點之一即為「音節」的各種現象。對於英語的音節研究，更是百家爭鳴，成果輝煌。本文將簡要介紹英語音節的部分理論，目的在於幫助英語學習者，更進一步瞭解英語的一些音韻現象，並提供相關理論背景，作為英語教學上的參考。文章包含下列六個部分：（I）拼音成節、(II) 構字限制、（III）音節性子音、（IV）子音刪除、（V）音節劃分、（VI）理論與教學的互動。

貳、拼音成節 Syllable Formation

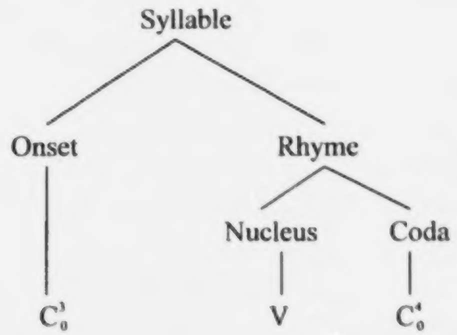
國內兒童英語的發音教學上，大致均從單音開始，然後進入音節合成。在拼音成節的作法上，有兩派教法。例如，在練習 pen / pɛn /一字的各音結合時，部分老師採用類似國語字音教學由上往下、依序結合的傳統方法，由左到右逐步結合。也有些老師採用以母音為基準，先結合母音及其後子音，再加上母音前子音的作法，其步驟分別如下：

(1) 方法一：先唸/ p /，再結合/ ɛ /成/ pɛ /，最後加上/ n /，終成/ pɛn /。
(2) 方法二：先唸/ ɛ /，再結合/ n /成/ ɛn /，最後加上/ p /，終成/ pɛn /。

據作者所知，此兩派爭議相持不下。據聞某全國連鎖兒英教育機構，曾經在全省性教學研討會上討論此一問題，但是兩派各持己見，未有結論。因此，各大兒英教學機構，在其發音教材及教師手冊上，對此問題，均不加以規範，任由教師各自為政[1]。

若試由音節的理論角度來看，或許能為此問題提供一些建議和參考。英語音節的內部構造，學者一般認定如下：

(3) 英語音節內部結構:



音節的核心為母音，必不可少。母音前的音(群)稱為 onset，其數量可以從 0 到 3。母音後的音(群)稱為 coda，其數量可由 0 到 4 之多。而子音群的組合搭配，在 onset 及 coda 中均各有限制，見以下章節。

由上列音節結構圖可見，母音及 coda 關係比較密切，並可自成一單位，稱為押韻。Onset 則與押韻關係遙遠。傳統上謂之「onset 不入韻」。反映出英語的押韻，只包含母音及 coda 二者的合成部分。此一押韻方式，並不限於英文。中文詩詞的押韻方式亦完全相同，請看：

(4) 英詩，Onset 不入韻 (Andrew Marvell： *To His Coy Mistress* 前四行)

Had we but World enough, and Time,
This coyness Lady were no crime.
We would sit down, and think which way
To walk, and pass our long Loves Day.

(5) 唐詩，聲母、介音不入韻 (李白：夜思)

床前明月光

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[1] 國內一些 Phonics 教材，對拼音成節的步驟，也有不同的看法。如依薇雯(1997:60) 採用先結合母音及後子音，再加掛前子音的方法。而謝欽舜(1997:23)則列出兩種方法，認為教 box 一字時，應由左向右逐步合成音節，但在教 bell，sing，ham，pen 等單字時，卻採用先結合母音及後子音，再加掛前子音的方法。

疑是地上霜
舉頭望明月
低頭思故鄉

由押韻的結構來看，似乎支持第二種拼音成節的結合法，也就是先結合母音及 coda 成一緊密單位，此一押韻單位再加掛 onset，成為整個音節。

另外，從英語音節的開放或封閉現象來看，第一種結合方式也有理論上的缺點。所謂開放音節，是以母音結尾的音節，如 pay、he、do、cow 等。在英語中，開放音節，尤其是單音節單字，的結尾母音，必須是長母音或雙母音。而封閉音節則是以子音結尾的音節，如 pen、dog、school、chair 等。短母音通常只能出現在封閉音節。

所以，採用第一種拼音成節的方式時，/□ /和/ε/先拼成/□ε/，在帶領小朋友唸讀的過程中，似有誤導/□ε/是英語中的合法音節之嫌。事實上，因為/ε/是短母音，因此/ □ε /是英語中不允許的獨立音節結構。相對的，在第二種拼音成節的方法中，則無此誤導可能。

因此，從音節的內部構造及音節的開放或封閉限制來看，第二種的拼音成節的方法，比較符合理論上的規範。

參、構字限制 Phonotactics

如前所述，母音前的 onset 有四種可能:無子音、單子音、雙子音、或三子音。其中單一子音的出現非常自由，除了/☪/及/臭/外，均可出現。而三子音群的搭配則有非常刻板的限制：如第一子音必定是/s/，第二子音必須是/p/，/t/，或/k/，而第三子音也僅限/l/，/r/，/j/，/w/其中之一。如 spring, street, scream, sclerosis, square 等單字。

比較有變化的則是雙子音群的搭配限制。首先看看下列單字，其字首雙子音群（C_1C_2）的排列如下：

(6) 部份字首雙子音群

/ pl- /：play	/ fl- /：fly	/ kl- /：clean	/sn-/ : snow
/ pr- /：pray	/ fr- /：fry	/ kr- /：cream	/❁r-/ : three

有趣的是，一旦我們顛倒 C_1C_2 的順序，其新組合（C_2C_1）均不為英語接受。

(7) 違規的字首子音群

*/ lp- /	*/ lf- /	*/ lk- /	*/ns-/
*/ rp- /	*/ rf- /	*/ rk- /	*/r❁-/

可是這些字首不允許的 C_2C_1 組合，卻又見容於句尾。

(8) 字尾雙子音群

/ -lp / ：help	/ -lf / ：half	/ -lk / ：milk	/-ns/ : ounce
/ -rp / ：carp	/ -rf / ：scarf	/ -rk / ：park	/-r❄/ : earth

由上述現象看來，英語的字首雙子音群 C_1C_2 有三個分佈特性：(1) 在字首不可倒序為 C_2C_1 （2）不見容於字尾 （3）倒序後的 C_2C_1 卻可出現於字尾。這種奇特的現象，從音節理論上看，則有淺顯易懂的規則可循。

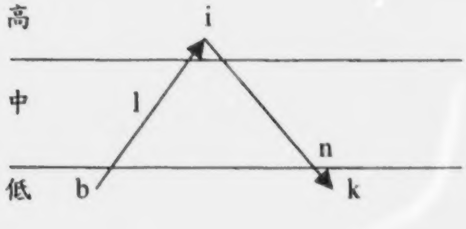
首先介紹「語音響度」。音韻學者均一致認定，各個單音都有其不同的響度 (sonority)，而不同的響度就決定了音節內，各個單音配置的限制。不過，音韻學者對於響度的分級方式，卻有不同的意見。例如音韻學家 Selkirk (1984:112) 分響度為 10 級，而語音學大師 Ladefoged (1993:246) 則有高達 16 級的響度區分。為了解釋方便，本文僅將響度大略分為三級：

(9) 語音響度三級分類

A. 高響度：(雙/半)母音
B. 中響度：流音/ l, r /、鼻音/ m, n, ☠ /
C. 低響度：其他子音

母音因為響度最高，成為音節的響度頂點。從此點，響度向兩側逐級遞減，形成類似山丘的側影。以 blink 一字為例，其響度外廓為：

(10) 響度外廓：以 blink 為例[2]



簡單的規律就是：從左到右，母音前子音群響度必須向母音挺升，母音後子音群響度則須從母音往下降。利用這個規則就可以清楚了解為什麼上述例(6) 中的子音群，可出現在字首（因 onset 響度上升），而例(7)中的子音群卻不可（因 onset 響度下降）。同理，例(8) 中的子音群也符合母音後 coda 響度下降的要求。表面看來奇特的子音群配置限制，成了有規律的語音現象。

當然，在英語中，響度要求並非主導英語構字限制的唯一原則。例如/ s /的

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[2] / l /與/ n /雖同為中響度子音，但是由圖形上看，/ l /的位置高於/ n /。原因在於一般學者認定，同為中響度的流音（liquids），響度略高於鼻音(nasals)。

分佈即非常自由，幾乎不受響度限制。又如字首的/ tl- /、/ tr- /俱符合響度上升的要求，可是英語卻只有/ tr- /字首，而無/ tl- /字首，而倒序後的/ -lt /及/-rt /卻又都可出現於字尾，如 halt 和 cart。在音韻學上，英語的構字限制，至今仍是一個未能全部解決的難題。

響度除了能大體上掌握構字限制外，也提供了其他語音變化的基礎。以下兩節就是響度導致的語音變化。

肆、音節性子音 Syllabic Consonants

對於「音節性子音」的認定，音韻學家也常有不同的意見和解釋。有些學者，如 Prator & Robinette (1985)認為英語的音節性子音僅有少量幾個，並規定只有在特定環境下，才能產生音節性子音。他們的公式是：

(11) 音節性子音出現環境，Prator and Robinette (1985:117)

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}/t/\\ /d/\\ /n/\end{array}\right\}\text{ + unstressed syllable containing }\left\{\begin{array}{l}/l/\\ \\ /n/\end{array}\right. \quad > \quad \text{syllabic consonant.}$$

由其公式看來，他們認定只有/l/ 和 /n/ 可成為音節性子音，而且必須配合兩個條件：(1) /l/ 或 /n/ 必須緊隨相同發音部位(上牙齦後)的 /t/, /d/, 或 /n/之一，(2) 只能出現在輕音節。

其他學者則採比較寬鬆的方式來界定音節性子音，如 Hammond（1999）以為，凡在同一 coda 內，低響度的子音出現在中響度的子音前時，中響度的子音，就會成為音節性子音。以 little 及 struggle 兩字為例，Hammond 認為兩字的尾音都是音節性子音。而 Prator & Robinette 則只接受 little 一字的尾音是音節性子音，因為/t/與/l/發音部位相同。至於 struggle 的/g/與/l/則因發音部位不同，而在字尾的/ ♑l /子音群中加入了一個弱母音 schwa / ★ /，成為一個新音節/ ♑★● /。

此外，由 prism 一字(以及所有字尾是-ism 的「主義」單字)，更可突顯兩派的差異。Prator & Robinette 以為：/z/ 和 /m/ 發音部位並不相同，所以產生母音插入：全字標記為/pr🖑.z★m/。Hammond 則接受/m/ 可為音節性子音：全字標記
為/pr🖑 zmⅡ/。因為/zm/在同一 coda，且順序為由低響度子音/z/，上升到中響度子
音/m/。

不論認定音節性子音的條件是嚴格或是寬鬆，產生音節性子音的共同條件是：響度上升的 coda。由上節敘述，我們知道 coda 的響度必須下降，所以不論字尾是/ -♦●/, /-♑●/, 或/-zm/，都是由低到中的上升響度。一旦發生 coda 響度上升時，英語至少有三種方法來補救響度違規，他們是：

(12) 補救 Coda 響度違規的三種音變

A. 將中響度子音，提升為音節性子音，因此形成了多出的新音節。

B. 在違規的子音群中間加入 schwa / ★ /，另成一新音節。

C. 刪除低響度的子音（見下一節）。

所以，兩派學者對上述(12A)與(12B)的歧異，僅在於增強音節的手段：是增強中響度子音成為新音節核心(12A)，還是另外插入一個新母音(12B)。同樣都是為了搶救違規 coda，而產生的音變。

國人學習英語第一次碰到音節性子音時，最令人好奇的就是音節性子音的特殊符號，如 / lⅡ / 和 / nⅡ /。然後就會懷疑音節性子音到底如何發音。老師在解釋音節性子音時，大概是傾向採 Prator & Robinette 的嚴格認定，強調「同發音部位」，是產生音節性子音的必要條件。除了列出單字為例之外，也多以帶讀的方法，來示範音節性子音的發音。對於音節性子音的起因和音節的響度要求，通常未予以多加說明。

從認知的層面來看，音節性子音並非獨立現象，其成因亦屬音節內的響度要求。作者以為，整體、全面的知識或將更有助於對英語音韻變化的通盤瞭解。至於理論與教學的互動關係，將於文末再行討論。

另外值得一提的是 Pennington（1996:60）對音節性子音的看法，她認為音節性子音和加入新母音的差別主要來自發音的速度。速度快時產生音節性子音，速度慢時產生 schwa / ★ /插入，頗值得我們參考。

伍、子音刪除 Consonant Deletion

Coda 響度違規時，除了上節的兩種補救方法外，第三種方法就是刪除其中一個子音，而遭刪除的必定是低響度的子音，在英語中最著名的例子，就是鼻音前子音/♑/的刪除（Pre-nasal /♑/-deletion）：

(13) 鼻音前子音/♑/的刪除（Pre-nasal /♑/-deletion）部份例字

/♑/ 消失	/♑/ 出現
sign / resign	signature / resignation
paradigm / phlegm	paradigmatic / phlegmatic

在 coda 的 /-♑■ / 或 /-♑m / 都違背了 coda 響度須下降的要求。如果 coda 尾音是鼻音時，/♑ /就被刪除，而排除了響度的違規狀態。相對的，在 signature 及 paradigmatic 中的/ ♑ /則可以保留下來，因為在劃分單字音節時，/♑/ 與鼻音是分屬兩個不同音節，自然沒有 coda 違規的情形。

(14) 音節劃分後 (句點代表音節切分處)

sig.na.ture： / ♑ /為前一音節 coda，/ n /為後一音節 onset。
pa.ra.dig.ma.tic： / ♑ /為前一音節 coda，/ m /為後一音節 onset。

同樣的，在上節所提的 prism 一字，其 coda /-zm/可有兩種音變。但在其形容詞 prismatic 中的/-zm-/則無任何變化，既無母音插入亦無音節性子音產生。原因也在於音節劃分後，/z/與/m/ 已不屬同一 coda，既無 coda 違規。自無音變可能。

(15) 音節劃分後

pris.ma.tic: /z /為前一音節 coda，/m /為後一音節 onset。

當然，英語中消失的子音不限於上述各例，大家熟知的尚有

(16) long vs. longer (/ ♑ /: 消失 vs. 出現)
(17) iamb vs. iambic (/ ♌ /: 消失 vs. 出現)

這類單字的字尾雙子音並不違背 coda 響度下降的規定，因此/ ♑ /與/ ♌ /的消失，無關於響度的要求。例(16) 音變的原因在於英語構字的後綴（suffix）性質[3]。例(17) 音變的原因則有關於「緊鄰音互異原則」(Obligatory Contour Principle) 的延伸[4]。二者的理論背景，不易簡單闡釋，限於篇幅，未能深入討論。但是不可忽略的仍是音節的觀念。在(16)、(17)兩例中子音的刪除，仍限於同一音節之內，且遭刪除的子音亦為低響度子音。一旦兩子音脫離了同一音節，音變也就不能發生：longer 與 iambic 兩字分音節後，/ ♑ /與/ ♌ /均可出現：

(18) lon.ger： / ♀ /為前一音節 coda，/ ♑ /為後一音節 onset。
(19) iam.bic：/ ○ /為前一音節 coda，/ ♌ /為後一音節 onset。

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[3] 不同性質的單字後綴(suffixes)，對音韻變化有不同的影響。如「行為者」字尾的-er，與動詞結合後，不影響原字根語音：singer，hanger。形容詞比較級的字尾-er，對原字根語音則有影響：longer，stronger。這種涉及「構詞成分」而產生的差異，屬於「構詞音韻學」(Lexical Phonology)的研究焦點。

[4] Obligatory Contour Principle (OCP)「緊鄰音調互異原則」，首現於對非洲語言語調的研究。其要旨為：相緊鄰的兩個語調必須互異，即不可有「平平」、「升升」、「降降」的語調並列。國語中的「三聲變調」即可視為 OCP 一例。推而廣之，在其他非語調語言中，OCP 似仍可解讀為「緊鄰音互異原則」。限制近似音緊鄰出現，如英語中任兩個鼻音，都不可在同音節緊鄰出現。

綜合上面各節說明，可見「音節」的觀念在英語音韻學中，扮演多麼重要的角色。此外，英語的字重音落點及字重音遷移（包含國內教學界俗稱的「名前動後」重音），亦與音節結構息息相關。現將上述音節理論背景整理如下：

(20) 音節與響度
A. 音節為語音現象的重要單位，許多音韻現象只能在此單位發生。
B. 音節有其內部結構。
C. 音節內單音排列順序有限制，限制原則之一是語音響度。
D. 響度違規的子音排列順序，或完全不可能出現(見附表)，或導致各類音變。

陸、音節劃分 Syllabification

不同於中文方塊字的一字一音節，英語的單字常含有多個音節。所以在帶讀多音節單字時，教師常須拆解單字成為音節，以便引領學生唸讀。劃分音節的方法有二（1）傳統的拼字劃分。（2）音韻學上的音節劃分。前者可見於字典的拼字劃分，主要目的在於幫助手寫或打字時分割單字。在當今電腦排版方便整齊的時代，此一分割音節的方法顯已失去意義。後者則是以音為準的劃分方法，屬於音韻學的研究範疇。

當兩母音中間出現子音（群）時，就產生分割音節的問題。以英語而言，兩母音中間出現子音的狀況有四種：

(21) 英語母音間子音(群)四種狀況
A. VCV： baby, second, token, repeat, major, etc.
B. VCCV： enjoy, fifty, random, master, invent, etc.
C. VCCCV： describe, empty, imply, monster, impress, display, etc.
D. VCCCCV： construction, transcribe, instruct, circumscribe, etc.

音韻學上對音節劃分的方法非常簡單：「前子音極多原則」(Maximal Onset Principle)，即儘量擴大 onset 數量，onset 容納不下的，才歸給前一音節為其 coda。如 transcribe 中的四子音群/ -nskr- /，最大的合法 onset 是/ skr- /，所以此三音歸後一音節 onset，容納不下的/ n /，則分配為前一音節 coda[5]。

又如 random 字中的/ -nd- /，此兩音不可同在 onset（違背 onset 響度須上的要求），亦不可同在 coda，因為此時 onset 成空。可是 onset 實際上可以有一子音 /d/。 所以，唯一能滿足「前子音極多原則」的分割方法是：拆開兩子音，分屬

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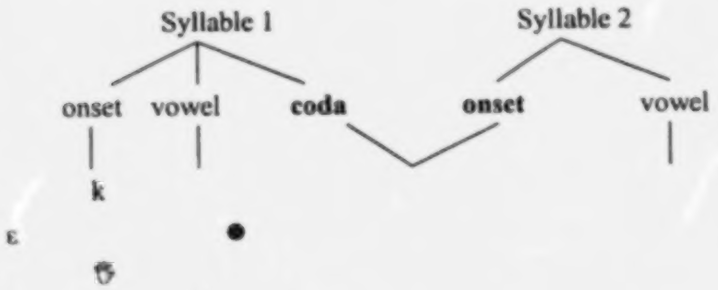
[5] 亦有學者以為 Maximal Onset Principle (MOP) 須受限於構詞因素。如 transfer 一字是由 trans-及字根-fer (refer, confer, prefer, defer, etc.) 組成。 若依 MOP 求取最大的 onset，而分割為 tran.sfer，將使得詞素界線喪失。因此他們認為 transcribe 該分割為/trans.kraib/。

兩個音節。

另外，如 Kelly 被劃分為/ kɛ.●[illegible] / 時，產生了短母音出現在開放重音節的違法音節/kɛ/，為了補救這種問題，音韻學家設計了抽象的「雙棲子音」(ambisyllabicity) 來處理此一現象。即認定/ l /音為前後兩音節所共享，而分別棲息在前一音節的 coda 及後一音節的 onset。

(22) 雙棲子音(簡圖)



雙棲子音的部分證據來自英語的單字拼法。例如重疊子音字母只可出現在字中及字尾，卻絕對不出現在字首。

(23) 英語重疊子音字母部份例字

A. 字首：無

B. 字中：Kelly, happy, settle, carry, common, cannon, bubble, lesson, etc.

C. 字尾：egg, call, puff, kiss, add, pick, jazz, etc.

明顯可見，重疊子音字母不論出現位置，且實際上只能發一個單音，功能其實相同：(1) 封閉音節 (2) 保障短母音合法出現在此一封閉音節。既然字首位置無能封閉音節，重疊子音字母自然不可能在此出現。

相對的，在 baby，token 中，因前一音節母音均為長音，可出現在開放音節尾，/ b /與/ k /自然無須雙棲，拼法上也就不會有子音字母重疊。

最後，在類似 master 單字中，後一音節的合法 onset 可以是單一的/ t /，也可以是雙音的/ st /。到底該分割成 /mas.ter /，以保障前音節的短母音，或分割成 / ma.ster /，而指定/ s /雙棲，在學術界仍有爭議。

柒、理論與教學的互動

受限於往日對音節結構概念的認識模糊，國內英語教學上，「音節」似乎只是一個語音單位名詞。所論者大約僅限於音節的輕重，對於音節在英語音韻系統中的作用，向來受到忽略。因此許多現象，如構字限制及各種音變（包括音節性

子音，子音刪除，及重音遷移等），都被視為獨立現象。老師分開來教，學生也分開來學。本文主要目的即希望藉由對音節理論的說明，可以將分離凌亂的單一現象，統合整理為相互關聯的系統知識。從理解的層次，對英語音韻系統，有所領悟。

至於文中所提一些教學法上的建議，如拼音成節的步驟，合理音節劃分的方法，皆由理論觀點出發。至於在實際教法上，則有待更進一步教學效果上的實證檢驗。雖然多數學者認定，發音知識的說明有助於語音學習。然而，發音課程的重點仍在於教會正確的發音。因此，理論知識講授的多寡，仍該由第一線教師依其學生的年齡或語文程度，酌量取材。理論研究的結果，在實際教學上，或可提供多一層面的思考，卻不該成為規範式的框架。

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附錄

英語的 CODA 雙子音分佈表:

	p	b	t	d	k	g	f	v	❄	💡	s	z	💧	☪	t💧	d☪	m	n	☠	l	r
p			pt						p❄		ps						OS codas： 全缺				
b				bd								bz									
t											ts										
d									d❄			dz									
k			kt								ks										
g				gd								gz									
f			ft						f❄		fs										
v				vd								vz									
❄				❄d							❄s										
💡												💡z									
s	sp		st	sd	sk																
z				zd																	
💧			💧t																		
☪				☪d																	
t💧																					
d☪																					
m	mp			md								mz									
n			nt	nd			nf		n❄			nz			nt💧	nd☪					
☠					☠k				☠❄			☠z									
l	lp	lb	Lt	ld	lk		lf	lv	l❄		ls	lz			lt💧	ld☪	lm	ln			
r	rp	rb	Rt	rd	rk	rg	rf	rv	r❄		rs	rz	r💧		rt💧	rd☪	rm	rn		rl	

1. 低響度子音統稱為 Obstruents (O)，中響度子音統稱為 Sonorants (S)，本表分為四大區，由右上起，依順時鐘方向循序為 OS, SS, SO, OO 四類 Coda 組合。
2. OS codas 所指為 Obstruent + Sonorant 的雙子音 Codas。因其響度違規，而完全不存在。
3. /h/ 未列，因其不在子音群出現。/t💧/, /d☪/ 視為單子音。
4. 參考資料：Prator and Robinett (1985: 177-178).

English Syllable Structure:

Theory and Teaching Application

Abstract

The present study introduces some important research findings in the theoretical study of English syllables. Numerous examples are provided to illustrate the crucial role that the syllable has to play in many phonological processes in English. In addition to theoretical exposition, suggestions are made on how phonological theory may be adapted for teaching English pronunciation in the classroom.

Key words: English phonology, syllable structure,
syllabic consonants, sonority, syllabification

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Integrating Phonics Instruction and Whole Language Principles in an Elementary School EFL Classroom

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Abstract

This paper reports the findings of a study on the efficacy of integrating phonics instruction and whole language principles into an elementary EFL classroom. After years of heated debate between whole language advocates and those who believe in phonics, educators have finally reached an agreement that phonics is essential in the early stage of literacy instruction; instead of arguing if phonics should be taught, one should look into how phonics should be taught. This conclusion is well taken in the newly implemented Nine-Year Integrated Curriculum in Taiwan; it is stipulated in the Curriculum Guides that phonics be taught in both elementary and junior high school English classrooms. Nonetheless, phonics instruction, which grew out of the teaching of reading to children speaking English as their native language, can cause reasonable concern about its effectiveness in an EFL setting. Therefore, this empirical study investigated how phonics instruction and whole language principles were integrated in an EFL classroom in Taiwan, and the effectiveness of this approach was also examined. Field notes, videotaping, as well as quantifiable evaluation methods were used to gather data. The students' performance in the areas of phonemic awareness, vocabulary learning, and story reading were specifically examined to yield insights into the pros and cons of using such an approach to foster children's English language proficiency. Based on the findings, instructional implications are discussed.

Key Words: EFL, Whole language, phonics instruction, elementary school

INTRODUCTION

In the newly implemented Nine-Year Integrated Curriculum Guidelines, it is stipulated that phonics be taught in elementary and junior high school EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classes (see Nine-Year Integrated Curriculum/Curriculum Guides/English, 3-1-2-, 5-1-4, 5-2-1, 2001). Considering the importance of phonics skills for successful English literacy development, it's understandable why phonics instruction is prescribed as the method for teaching children in Taiwan the sound-symbol relationships in the English language. Nonetheless, in the Guidelines, there is no description of how phonics should be taught. This is particularly worrisome since phonics instruction can be a very baffling term and there are different beliefs about how phonics should be taught (for a detailed discussion, see Stahl, Duffy-Hester, & Stahl, 1998). How phonics should be taught by and large depends on the way reading is defined. For example, for people who believe that reading should begin with interpretations of whole texts, phonics is used only to support the reader's need to get meaning from text. Holding a different perspective, some people may believe that systematic emphasis on decoding words can lead to better reading achievement. In addition to the split among educators regarding ways to teach phonics, teachers themselves may not have sufficient knowledge of phonics (Moats, 1995). According to a survey by Huang(1999), the seventy-four high school EFL teachers whom he randomly selected from different cities in northern Taiwan had only very limited understanding about phonics instruction. Researchers believe that helping EFL teachers in Taiwan to equip themselves with phonics knowledge to be a matter of great urgency(Chen, 1999; Kuo, 2000).

Since phonics instruction is considered to be essential to the development of English literacy (Baumann, Hoffman, Moon, & Duffy-Hester, 1998) and conducting phonics instruction is required for English teaching in Taiwan, it is imperative to search for effective ways to teach phonics to our students. Over the years, much research has been done on children who spoke English as their first language, to identify effective approaches to teaching phonics, but it is hard to compare data across educational contexts. After all, learning English as a foreign language is much different from both learning English as a native and a second language. Whether or not the findings in first language (L1) settings are generalizable to EFL settings remains to be examined.

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

Phonics Instruction in English as L1 Literacy Classrooms

As aforementioned, there is a consensus that phonics instruction is essential to the teaching of English to children, but educators are divided in thinking how phonics instruction should be carried out. There has been a long history of debate between the advocates of systematic instruction of decoding skills and those who favor a whole language approach (Dahl & Scharer, 2000). The arguments centered on whether reading instruction should involve a "phonics or a look-say approach" (Baumann et al., 1998, p. 584). Phonics believers emphasize the importance of an early and systematic approach to teaching children to decode words (Adams, 1990; Chall, 1967; 1989; 1996). They assert that teaching children to pronounce and spell words through direct instruction in sound-symbol relationships can help children become independent and successful readers. To the whole language advocates, however, phonics skills are one of the cueing systems that children use, along with syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic information, during reading and writing. Its instruction should be embedded in ongoing reading and writing activities and is shaped by the teacher's understanding of each child's development in his or her individual language learning processes (Goodman, 1992).

This heated and prolonged debate between the proponents of phonics instruction and the whole language approach have led many to believe that the two are mutually exclusive to each other. The polarizing rhetoric used by both sides has even convinced some people that whole language teachers should never teach words in isolation and can teach phonics only when students demonstrate the need for it.

The Whole Language Approach and its Application in EFL Classrooms

To know how whole language advocates really view phonics instruction, one should start with understanding the whole language approach. Whole language is a philosophy about teaching and learning. Dahl, Scharer, Lawson, and Grogan (1999) proclaim that a whole language classroom should: 1) be child-centered; 2) be taught in meaning-centered approaches; 3) use a variety of print sources as well as children's literature; 4) provide a literate environment for reading and writing; 5) encourage collaborative interaction among students. Freeman and Freeman (1992) outline seven whole language principles for second language (L2) teachers: 1) lessons should be taught from whole to part; 2) lessons should be learner-centered; 3) lessons should be meaningful and purposeful; 4) lessons should include social interactions; 5) lessons should include practice in the four language skills; 6) the L1 could be used in language classrooms to build concepts and facilitate learning; and 7) teachers should show faith in learners. They believe that whole language not only works for L1 learners but for L2 learners as well.

Although the whole language approach has started out as a movement for literacy instruction and may be applicable to L2 learners, foreign language (FL) teachers and researchers are embracing it in their practices, too. For example, Lems

(1995) translates the above whole language guidelines and principles into ESL/EFL classroom practices as the following: 1) the language arts are integrated; 2) language is not an end in itself, but a means to an end; 3) students are immersed in literacy events; 4) students are surrounded by authentic print; 5) students learn by doing; 6) teachers respect and value each student's unique background, experience, and learning style; 7) learning is a collaborative activity; 8) students take responsibility for their own learning while teachers facilitate the learning process; and 9) assessment is authentic and appropriate. Based on Lems' (1995) idea, Schwarzer (2001) proposes eight philosophical principles needed for implementing a whole language philosophy in a foreign language class and describes a whole language foreign language class as a practical example. He indicates that a whole language foreign language class should display students' work, provide a learning environmental rich in print materials, and use the community as a resource. Basal readers as well as literature, especially children's and young adults' books, should be used in the class. Furthermore, teachers should establish a schedule of activities through negotiation with students to help students deal with the open-opportunity nature of the whole-language foreign language class. Table 1 summarizes the whole language principles in L1, L2, and FL classrooms.

Table 1

Whole Language Principles in L1 and FL Classrooms

Whole Language in L1 classrooms	Whole Language in L2 classroom	Whole Language in FL classrooms	
Dahl, Scharer, Lawson, and Grogan (1999)	Freeman and Freeman (1992)	Lems (1995)	Schwarzer (2001)
Child-centered	From whole to part		Child-centered
Meaning-centered	Learner-centered		
Collaboration	Meaningful & purposeful	Collaboration	Integrated curriculum
	Social interaction	Language arts	
	Four skills		Community
		Student background	
Literate environment	Use of L1	Student responsibility	Print-rich environment
	Faith in learners	Authentic print	
		Literacy events	Display student work
		Learn by doing	
		Language as means, not an end	

Besides outlining principles, some researchers have implemented the approach in their foreign language classrooms. Louton and Louton (1992) practiced the whole language approach in an elementary school foreign language classroom where a foreign language specialist worked with a regular classroom teacher on the same topics to create a real purpose for foreign language instruction. Redmond (1994) applied selected whole language strategies so that students could build on their prior knowledge and experience and find relevance in their learning of reading and writing skills in French. De Godev (1994) found that the whole language method of using a dialogue journal activity could help students connect oral and writing skills. Barry and Pellissier (1995) used popular music in a foreign language class based on a mix of thematic units and whole language approaches. They concluded that the approach provided the students with opportunities to understand themes from the target culture that are functional, interesting, and relevant. Adair-Hauk (1996) also reported that several foreign language teachers utilized story reading in their French as a foreign language classes and gained positive results.

The application of whole language principles in the teaching of foreign languages may not have been well established but the pockets of success serve as inspiration for foreign language teachers and researchers of different countries to experiment with its use in their classrooms (Schwarzer, 2001), including those in Taiwan. Huang (1997) implemented a whole-language program, Fluency First, to teach reading and writing to a group of sophomore English majors. It was found that the students developed fluency through massive amounts of enjoyable reading and writing along with plenty of authentic input and cooperative activities designed to integrate all language skills. Tseng (1997) examined the possibility of actualizing the whole language theory for young EFL learners in Taiwan based on her experience of designing a whole language curriculum for 16 elementary school children. Chao (1999) introduced a multiple intelligence whole language model for EFL teachers in Taiwan. Although the number of empirical research reports on it's use and results in Taiwan EFL classrooms is still limited, Tseng (1997) has already gone as far as proclaiming that "…[I]f we deny the possibility of Whole Language, we denied the possibilities of educational reform [in Taiwan]" (p. 539).

Phonics Instruction in a Whole Language Classroom

The whole language approach evidently is welcomed by FL teachers and has found its way into EFL classrooms in Taiwan. Will the age-old debate between the advocates of phonics and whole language principles be carried over to the teaching of English as a foreign language? How should phonics be taught in an EFL classroom? These questions seem logical to ask by foreign language educators who apply the whole language approach in their classrooms. For EFL educators in Taiwan, this question is especially valid, since phonics has been included as part of the national curriculum and yet little research has been done to look into this matter.

In search for effective ways to teach phonics, Stahl et al. (1998) reviewed phonics instruction in the U.S. since the 1960s and characterized phonics instruction into traditional and contemporary approaches based on its chronological advancement. They defined traditional approaches as those that were in vogue during the 1960s and 1970s whereas contemporary phonics approaches were those used frequently in the past decade. They further outlined the principles of good phonics instruction as the following: 1) it should develop the alphabetic principle; 2) it should develop phonological awareness; 3) it should not teach rules, need not use worksheets, should not dominate instruction, and does not have to be boring; 4) it provides sufficient practice in reading words; 5) it leads to automatic word recognition; and 6) it is one part of reading instruction. It is interesting to note that these researchers characterized "whole language phonics instruction" as one of the "contemporary phonics approaches" (p. 349) and emphasized that an effective literacy program should involve elements associated with the whole language as well as direct phonics instructional approaches.

Stahl et al. (1998) are not the only ones who find "whole language versus phonics" unnecessary. As a matter of fact, in recent years, studies have revealed the fading of the line drawn between phonics instruction and the whole language approach. Phonics instructions is being incorporated into various reading and writing activities typical of whole language classrooms. For example, Dahl et al. (1999) conducted a study analyzing phonics teaching and learning in eight whole language first grade classrooms and found foundation concepts, such as phonemic and phonological awareness, and phonemic segmentation, as well as letter-sound relationships were taught. Whole language strategies were presented in tandem with phonics skills. Another study, a survey of 1,207 elementary school teachers in the U.S., found that a majority of teachers embraced a balanced, eclectic approach to elementary reading instruction blending phonics and holistic principles and practices in a compatible way (Baumann et al., 1998). In other words, recent studies on whole language found phonics as integral to the reading and writing processes. The whole language perspective recognizes the importance of phonics knowledge and the need to address strategies and skills that children use as they engage in reading and writing.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The above literature review shows that guidelines for implementing whole language teaching in L1, L2, and FL classrooms are being provided by researchers. In addition, phonics instruction is a matter of reality in L1 whole language classrooms. However, in foreign language teaching and learning settings, the implementation of whole language is still far from being well established (Schwarzer, 2001). How phonics skills are learned or taught in whole language FL classrooms has yet to be looked into. The purpose of this empirical study therefore aimed to provide teachers and researchers with the information about the efficacy of integrating phonics instruction in a whole language EFL classroom.

This study sought to answer the following two research questions:

1) How are phonics instruction and whole language principles integrated in elementary EFL classroom in Taiwan?
2) How phonics instruction in a whole language elementary EFL classroom affects the children's development of English language skills?

RESEARCH METHOD

Participants

The study took place in an elementary school in central Taiwan and lasted for one semester. The participants were thirty-seven students of an intact class randomly selected from all of the fifth grade classes in the school. Like many other elementary schools on the island, the children of this school begin to have English classes in grade five but many may have attended private English classes before that. As to the children of this study, only ten of them had no prior English learning experience. Eight of them have had learned English for less than one year. The longest number of years some children had been studying English was four. On average, the students have had 1.1 years of English language learning.

The teacher of this study has had over ten years of experience teaching children English. She identified herself as a children's book advocate and had been using children's literature in her teaching. She has even given workshops at local and international conferences and seminars to demonstrate the use of children's books and storytelling for EFL instruction. To prepare the teacher for this study, the teacher was first provided with articles and books on whole language and engaged in discussion sessions with the researcher to ensure a good understanding of the philosophy. The five criteria outlined by Dahl, Lawson, and Grogan (1999) in identifying a whole language classroom (i.e., child-centered curriculum, teaching approach, materials, classroom environment, and collaborative peer context) were especially thoroughly discussed. Furthermore, the teacher and the researcher co-designed and implemented a two-week literature-based instruction unit for a summer camp based on the criteria to ensure her thorough familiarity with the whole language principles at both the theoretical and operational levels.

To further familiarize the teacher with the phonics approach, the teacher was asked to attend phonics workshops offered by Jolly Phonics Ltd. Two Jolly Phonics teachers from Australia were invited to come to the participating school to demonstrate the use of phonics materials and exchange teaching ideas with the teacher.

Procedures

Before starting the study, the researcher and the teacher worked closely together to ensure that they reached the same kind of understanding about phonics instruction and the whole language philosophy. Many reading and discussion sessions took place before the teacher started to plan her syllabus. It was decided that the instruction of the 42 English sounds would follow the sequence outlined by the Jolly Phonics, a program that explicitly and systematically introduces letter sounds, letter formations, blending, etc. to children. The sounds would be introduced in the way that the first few letters could be used to make many simple words so that letters could quickly be turned into words. The letters that might easily confuse the children would not be taught too closely together, such as "b" and "d." Three sets of decodable books that focused on sounds and high frequency words would also be used.

After the semester got started, the researcher and two research assistants came to the EFL classroom to observe and conduct videotape-recording on every Tuesday morning for two class periods. To understand the children's learning progress, the children were observed in their weekly learning of letter-sound relations in reading and formally evaluated three times, each being carried out in one-month interval. In addition, the children were asked to keep learning portfolios in which their work samples were collected. According to Dahl et al. (1999), phonics achievement usually involves testing the learners at the word or letter level and focuses on a specific aspect of phonics knowledge, whereas the whole language perspective includes decoding words in context. In consultation with their reviews, the English teacher and the researcher jointly designed the assessment activities for the children that would include decoding both in isolation and in context. The assessments focused on three areas: 1) decoding sounds in isolation (i.e., sounds in isolation, blending, phoneme segmentation, and phoneme blending) (see Appendix I), 2) identifying words from readers (see Appendix II), and 3) reading in a familiar context (i.e., reading of self-selected readers). What was assessed in the three time assessments corresponded with the phonics skills that were taught and books the children had read during the month. The children were tested individually to ensure the accuracy of the evaluation results.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

The data collection for this study included 1) video data of all the teaching sessions, 2) general field note accounts of classroom teaching and learning, 3) students' learning portfolios, and 4) scores from formal assessments. During data collection, the researcher and research assistants served as participant-observers with relatively low involvement, their role being to watch and write about the teaching and learning in the classroom. The field notes detailed the teaching environment, instructional materials, instructional activities, and students' responses toward the teaching and learning of phonic skills. The videotapes were used to crosscheck the information documented in the field notes. Both field notes and video data were transcribed and later analyzed in weekly discussions among the researcher and research assistants to identify whole language principles and phonics activities demonstrated in the week's lesson. The assessment results were analyzed quantitatively to probe into the students' development of phonics skills. The teacher was consulted and further confirmed the findings.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

How were phonics instruction and whole language principles integrated into an elementary EFL classroom in Taiwan?

After carefully examining the field notes and viewing the videotapes, it was found that both phonics instruction and whole language principles were carefully orchestrated in the EFL lessons. Explicit and direct instruction to sounds and letters was done in the first class period. In the second period the children had opportunities to learn sounds and words in context by reading connected texts. Whole language activities such as collaborative interaction, reading for meaning and enjoyment, easy access to prints, and use of alternative forms of assessment were identified.

Instructional Routine Which Focused on Systematic Introduction of Sounds

The children who participated in this study had two consecutive class periods of English instruction on every Tuesday morning; each period lasted for 40 minutes. In the first period, the teacher usually started her lesson by explicitly introducing English sounds and the alphabet to the children in the order that was outlined in *Jolly Phonics*. Usually two to four sounds were introduced in a week's lessons. Individual sounds were first introduced one by one with the corresponding letters. The children learned each letter by its sound, not its name. Accompanying pictures, flash cards, and actions were used to help the children remember the sounds as well as the possible words the sounds would appear in. After several sounds were introduced, the teacher then used sound cards to familiarize the students with blending. Games were usually used to reinforce the students' ability in blending sounds, segmentation, sound-to-word matching, deletion and manipulations. Besides seat work (such as phonetic bingo, tracing the letter, coloring pictures, matching sounds with letters, matching words with pictures, etc.), various types of competitive and cooperative games (such as memory games, matching games, interviewing classmates) were incorporated for the children to practice hearing and saying the sounds. Since hand puppets came with the phonics materials, the teachers also used them to make her lessons interesting.

Reading Connected Texts

In the second class period, the instruction involved reading contrived texts and authentic literature with repetitions of taught sounds and patterns. For the children to learn the sounds and words in meaningful context, three sets of readers were used for in-class reading as well as for take-home reading. They included *Scholastic Phonics*

Readers, *Scholastic My First Phonics Readers*, and *Scholastic High Frequency Readers*. Each time, after new sounds were introduced, the teacher chose one reader from the three sets for the entire class to read together. Depending on the story in the reader, the teacher designed suitable activities for the children to comprehend and appreciate the story. The commonly used activities included games, story retelling, enacting the story, role-play, discussion for comprehension and content of the story, etc. Most of the activities involved cooperative interaction among the children. For example, while enacting the story as groups, the children had to make decisions on the role each group member had to play, the lines each one had to say, and the use of suitable intonations. After enactment, the whole class then discussed and commented on the performance of the different groups. Sometimes, they even voted for the group that did the best interpretation of the story. This kind of activity not only required group cooperation but also understanding of the text. The children also made their own copies of the week's reader. Reading texts that contained a high percentage of words with patterns taught in the phonics lessons allowed the children to apply their phonemics knowledge to tasks that aimed for comprehension. Table 2 presents titles of readers that the children read after the sounds had been taught.

Table 2
Sounds and Their Accompanying Readers

	First Month	Second Month	Third Month
Sounds	s, a, t, i, p, n, c/k, e, h, r, m, d, g, o, u, l, f, b, j, ai	oa, ie, ee, or	z, w, ng, v, oo, **oo** *, y, th, **th** *, sh
Readers	Dad A Lot on Top	Dad and Sam Hello Where is Nat? We Dig	I See Ted Pop! Pop! Where Can Cat Run?

Note: bold-faced **oo** indicates long **oo** sound; bold-face **th** indicates unvoiced **th**.

Access to Print

The whole language classroom emphasizes a literary environment for children to learn the language naturally. To ensure that reading was part of the children's daily life activities and the children had sufficient opportunities to enforce what was taught in the English class, a cabinet was kept in the classroom with multiple copies of readers and children's books. The children could check out the books any time they wanted from this "classroom library" to take home. "Student librarians" were chosen to manage the checking out and return of the classroom library books.

Take-home Reading

An A4 envelope was used for each child to bring home books to read independently or with a family member. Each time a child brought home a book, s/he would record the title of the book and the time the book was checked out and returned on the recording sheet on the envelope. If the child read to a family member, the person would have to sign the envelope for the child. The children could choose any book they liked from the library and read at their own pace. This activity, however, seemed to require encouragement from the teacher. The children who have had prior experience with the English language tended to be more enthusiastic about checking out books. The children who had little or no prior exposure to English felt that the books they could read were limited due to their English language proficiency. Parents were also informed by the teacher to support this activity through letters and parent-teacher conferences.

Use of Alternative Assessment

Besides formal assessments, the children's progress was also documented by the use of portfolios. Throughout the semester, the children selected from the work they completed to put in their portfolios. The selection was up to the children to decide, however, they were recommended to select at least one artifact from each week's work for the sake of completeness. The children included in their portfolios the worksheets they had completed in class, the readers they recreated, and creative responses toward the stories they read (e.g., self-made books). They also designed the covers for their own portfolios and added artwork to personalize them. Their own photos and photos of their family members or pets were commonly used. Judging from the fancy designs, evidently the children exercised their personal taste and patience in documenting their own growth.

Findings from the Three Formal Assessments

To provide the school administrators and parents with the information about the children's progress in their English language skills (namely grades), the children had to participate in monthly evaluations like the children of other classes in the school. However, due to the experimental nature of the instruction, the methods of assessing this group of children were specially designed. In all three formal assessments, the children had to demonstrate their abilities in phonics skills, vocabulary comprehension, and storybook reading. To ensure that each individual student had opportunities to demonstrate their language abilities, they were divided up into four groups and assessed individually by the teacher, the researcher, and two research assistants. Discussion sessions were held before each assessment to ensure that all evaluators would use the same criteria. After each assessment was completed, the evaluators met together to go over all the students' scores until total agreement was reached.

Although number grades were recorded according to the students' performance, as required by the school, they were converted into categorical grades before they were given to students and parents. Table 3 shows the children's performance on the three assessments.

Table 3

EFL Children's Performances on the Three Assessments

	Phonics			Vocabulary			Story reading		
Assessment	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd
Outstanding	17	21	29	22	24	20	21	23	4
	46%	57%	78%	59%	65%	54%	57%	62%	11%
Excellent	3	5	6	0	0	13	3	3	20
	8%	14%	16%	0	0	35%	8%	8%	54%
Good	2	2	2	0	0	2	1	1	7
	5%	5%	5%	0	0	5%	3%	3%	19%
Fair	1	5	0	6	4	2	2	2	3
	3%	14%	0	16%	11%	5%	5%	5%	8%
Needs improvement	14	3	0	8	8	0	10	7	3
	38%	8%	0	22%	22%	0	27%	19%	8%

Outstanding = 91-100, Excellent = 81-90, Good = 71-80, Fair = 61-70, Need improvement = below 60

From Table 3, it can be seen clearly that the children made progress in all three areas of language skills. When the first assessment was given, seventeen students (46%) performed outstandingly, three (8%) were excellent, two (5%) were good, one (3%) was fair, and fourteen (38%) of the students' phonics skills needed improvement. The results of the second assessment showed that the children's phonics scores had increased: twenty-one students (57%) performed outstandingly, five students (14%) performed excellently, two (5%) were good, five (14%) were fair, and only 3 (8%) still needed improvement. By the time the third assessment was completed, a majority of the students scored outstandingly (78%), none of the children was categorized as "needing improvement" anymore.

As to the children's performance in vocabulary learning, the children also demonstrated improvements. Although some students (N=8, 22%) did not do well on the vocabulary skills in the first and second assessments, none of them stayed in the "needing improvement" category in the third evaluation. As a matter of fact, in the third assessment, the children who performed outstandingly and excellently combined made up to 89% of the entire class.

Nonetheless, the students' storybook reading scores showed a somewhat different pattern. The students performed well on their first and second assessments but not quite so in the third evaluation. In the first and second assessments, over half of the class was rated as "outstanding" (N=21, 57% and N=23, 62% respectively); however, in the third assessment, only four (11%) students reached the "outstanding" level. The majority of students (N=20, 54%) belonged to the "excellent" category. When the third assessment was given, there were still three students scored at the "needing improvement" category.

The children's number grades of the three assessments were averaged and their standard deviations were sought (see Table 4). Evidently not only did the children's grades in all three areas improved as the learning progressed, the differences of their English language proficiencies decreased, too.

Table 4

The Children's Number Grade Averages and Standard Deviations of the Three-time Formal Assessments

	First Assessment		Second Assessment		Third Assessment	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Phonics	68.1	32.9	84.2	31.4	94.4	5.6
Vocabulary	75.7	32.4	81.1	30	89.1	9
Story reading	74.5	35.5	82.6	26.6	83	10.6

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

This study examined the feasibility of integrating phonics instruction and whole language principles in an elementary school EFL classroom. By means of qualitative and quantitative research methods, the information concerning the effectiveness of such an integrated approach in fostering Taiwanese children's English language proficiency was gathered and analyzed. Through explicit and systematic phonics instruction as well as whole language practices including teaching sounds and words in meaningful contexts, providing the children with easy access to prints, and using alternative forms of assessments (Freeman & Freeman, 1992; Lems, 1995; Schwarzer, 2001), the children of this study demonstrated positive gains in their phonics skills and vocabulary recognition. This finding echoes the literature on phonics instruction in whole language L1 classrooms (Baumann et al., 1998; Dahl & Scharer, 2000; Dahl et al.,1999) that both phonics instruction and whole language principles can work together to help children develop language skills. This finding can be particularly meaningful to the EFL educators in Taiwan who believe in the whole language principles but are required to carry out phonics instruction.

Another finding that is worth noting and deserves some discussion is the children's ability to read storybooks independently. According to the scores of the three evaluations, the number of students performed at the "excellent" level dropped from 21 (57%) in the first evaluation to only 4 (11%) in the third evaluation. Does this mean that the students' ability to read self-selected storybooks y declined as a result of the instruction? After taking a close look at the books that the children picked out to read for the assessments, the researcher found that the decline in the scores might have due to children's willingness to choose books that were challenging for them to read. In the third evaluation, instead of selecting stories with easy and short text, nearly two-third of the children attempted the books with longer text and more complex sentence patterns. Therefore, instead of interpreting the decline as a lack of improvement in the children's reading proficiency, one might see it as a reflection on the increase of the children's confidence to read more difficult text. This willingness to read challenging books even when they were being evaluated could also mean that the children, after being instructed in the approach where reading was also for fun and enjoyment, had become less grade-conscious. Anyway, overall speaking, the children still demonstrated improvement in their ability to read for in the third evaluation, most of the children did perform at satisfactory levels; twenty students (54%) were rated as excellent and seven (19%) students were rated as good in their story reading skills.

As to the generalizablity of the findings of this study, caveats must be taken in suggesting that such a successful single-case story would occur with other teachers or in other classrooms. In this study, the participating teacher was able to meticulously combined explicit phonics instruction with context-rich activities in her classroom to enhance the children's overall language proficiency and gained positive results. However, this was done through extremely close collaboration with a university researcher. The teacher devoted much time to thoroughly understand both the whole language philosophy and phonics instruction. Her willingness and ability to grow professionally were the key elements to the success of this experimental study. According to the research done by Huang (1999) and Kuo (2000), a lot of English teachers in Taiwan still need further training to understand what phonics instruction is about. Many English teachers' familiarity with the whole language philosophy is also questionable (Tseng, 1997). Unless assistance in professional development are available to teachers to ensure their professional competence in implementing such an integrated approach, the probability of getting the same kind of positive results might not be high.

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APPENDIX I

Phonics Assessment Instrument

Name:_______________ Student Number:______

A. Sounds in isolation—read the following sounds

s t c/ k p h
d g n i a

B. Consonant vowel consonant (CVC) short vowel—read the following words

bit can fit jam
lid got in tap
nel hug des cab
tot run set

C. Auditory training— phoneme segmentation

map	(m-a-p)
ten	(t-e-n)
set	(s-e-t)
did	(d-i-d)
can	(c-a-n)

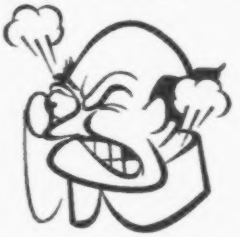
D. Auditory training --- Phoneme blending

s-n-a-p
r-e-d
s-a-d
p-i-g
t-o-p

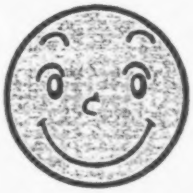
APPENDIX II

Assessment Instrument for the Comprehension of Vocabulary Words in Readers

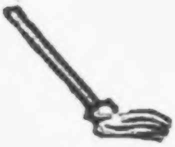
1. mop



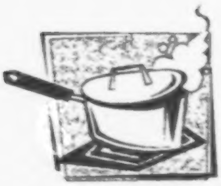
2. mad



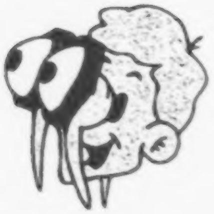
3. see



4. glad



5. pot



英語教學 *English Teaching & Learning*
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將字母拼讀與全語言理念整合應用於國小英語教學之成效

摘要

本研究探討在國小英語教室中整合字母拼讀教學與全語言活動的可能性及其對國小學生學習英語的影響及成效。九年一貫英語科課程綱要中明示，國小英語教學須實施拼讀教學，同時亦強調有意義及情境化的學習。本文於是首先討論拼讀教學與全語言理念在英語為母語的語言教室中共同存在的可能性，以作為探討該整合模式在英語為我國國小英語教室中實施的理論根據。接著，本研究以一班國小五年級英語課師生為研究對象，實施為期一年的拼讀與全語言整合式教學試驗。透過課室觀察、錄影紀錄、共同討論、分段評量等質化及量化資料蒐集及分析，研究人員歸納整理出課室活動進行情形及學生學習成果。結果顯示，參與本研究的老師的確能將全語言理念（如情境化閱讀、閱讀資源的提供、親子共讀、多元評量等）及有系統的拼讀教學共同整合於教學活動中。學生在字母拼讀、字彙理解、閱讀自選讀本三方面的表現，也都有正面的成長。根據所得結果，本文最後除了肯定整合拼讀教學及全語言於國小英語教學中的可行性外，更呼籲加強提供我國國小英語教師專業成長的機會，以提升其對拼讀教學及全語言理念的認識，才有可能實施整合兩者的教學方法。

關鍵詞：國小英語教學　全語言　字母拼讀　拼讀教學

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A Study of Using Web Concordancing for English Vocabulary Learning in a Taiwanese High School Context

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Abstract

A web concordancer, a relatively new learning tool for foreign language learning, allows learners to search for occurrences of any lexical term in a corpus. Concordance-based language learning encourages inductive thinking and discovery learning. This study aims to investigate the feasibility of incorporating concordancing into the regular EFL senior high school English curriculum, to examine whether learners' vocabulary level and preferred English learning style (induction or deduction) influence the effectiveness of concordancing on English vocabulary learning, and to elicit learners' feedback on web concordancing. Forty-six second-year senior high school students from an intact class participated in the study. Ten concordancing sessions were incorporated into regular English classes and students worked on the concordancing tasks individually during these sessions. A pretest, a quiz and a posttest were conducted to measure the students' vocabulary learning. An error correction exercise was also used to gain more understanding about the individual use of the web concordancer. A background questionnaire and an evaluation questionnaire were used to gather students' perceptions before and after the study. The results of the study suggest that concordancing can be an effective tool for language learning. In particular, students of the low vocabulary level group and the induction group benefited more from concordancing. Given careful planning and appropriate guidance, concordancing can be incorporated into secondary level language instruction to benefit language learners.

Key Words: concordancer, corpus, English learning styles

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, foreign language teaching has been dominated by presenting new word sense or form and structural patterns deductively, asking learners to memorize them, and testing them through various quizzes. Such direct instruction with a rule-based approach may be effective in helping learners of analytic types to pass various language examinations but it is against the ideal of learner autonomy (e.g., Johns, 1991a). As in real life, learners promote their competence through frequent contact with repeated cases of language items in authentic materials and internalizing rules implicitly. Research has also shown that some learners acquire a foreign language more effectively via an inductive approach (e.g., Abraham, 1985). In traditional textbooks or instructional media, presenting language items in repeated cases is either difficult or at best artificial. An example is grammar reference books where cases are presented only in phrasal or sentential contexts with limited examples.

With great advances in digital technology, computers have provided not only low-cost options for educational and personal use but also powerful foreign language learning tools that are unique among traditional print materials or instructional aids (e.g., Sun, 1999). A concordancer one, type of computer program, allows users to examine all the occurrences of any word. It has been claimed to be the "most valuable contribution a computer can make to language learning" (Higgins, 1991, p. 5) because it can give "on demand and in an organized fashion, masses and masses of authentic language" (ibid.). The use of the concordancer as a tool for language teaching and learning is due to the pioneering language teaching work of Tim Johns at the University of Birmingham in the 1980s. Johns (1991b) proposed that "the language learner is also essentially a research worker whose learning needs to be driven by access to linguistic data" (p. 2) and hence the term "data-driven learning" (DDL) is used to describe the concordance-based learning approach.

Recently, due to the widespread use of the World Wide Web, concordancing resources on the Internet have become readily accessible to a wider population of language learners. Thus, concordancing has become increasingly important in language learning and has been regarded as one of the most promising ideas in computer-assisted language learning (Johns, 1991; Stevens, 1995; Cobb, 1997, 1999; Todd, 2001). A review of relevant literature indicates that so far concordancing has been mostly used for English for specific purposes (ESP) or English for academic purposes (EAP) at the tertiary school level (Mpartusa et al., 1991; Cobb, 1997, 1999; Sun, 1999; Someya, 2000; Todd, 2001; Kennedy and Miceli, 2001). Much still has to be learned about how it can be employed with students at the secondary school level.

In Taiwan, ROC, concordancing is a relatively new application of computing tools for inductive teaching in the field of English teaching and learning. With the exception of Sun(1991), who studied college students, little research has been conducted on actual learners. Other researchers(Sun, 2000; Chen, 1997, 2000)have focused on the development of some Web-based concordancers. Before a computer tool can be considered useful, evidence is needed to show how learners can use the tool for language learning purpose; otherwise it may become a programmer's gadget. Based on the aforementioned reasons, there was an urgent research need to investigate the use of the concordancer as a revolutionary tool for English language learning at the secondary school level in Taiwan's context. It is hoped that the study can provide empirical evidence on the effectiveness of the concordancer in a specific English learning context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The data-driven language learning approach as exemplified by the concordancer is discussed first, followed by a review of empirical studies on using concordancing on learners.

Concordance-based Language Learning Approach

A concordance, output generated by the concordancing programs, can be used to highlight the grammatical patterns, collocations and syntactic aspects of lexical items as in Figure 1.

1 concerned with an account of her trip (about which she may later have ma
2 of three men who started out on a trip across a single paddock, a ten-by-
3 ed away from newsmen on his train trip across the nation to Reno, Nev&, w
4 0 families started the three-month trip across the plains to the Mississip
5 d fight the world. Chris made trip after trip in our old car, moving

Figure 1
Concordances of the Word "trip"

Teachers can present a set of concordances and ask learners to induce patterns from them. The concordance-based language learning approach is described as "data-driven learning" (DDL) by Johns (1991b). Traditionally, language learning tends to rely on deductive reasoning. Learners are taught rules first and given a number of applications later. In contrast to the traditional rule-based approach, the data-driven approach emphasizes induction in the learning process. Learners are offered an opportunity to test their hypotheses and discover rules from concordances. The advantages of using data-driven learning have been supported in the literature (e.g., Cobb, 1997). First, during the learners are exposed to large amounts of authentic language of different styles and genre. Given access to the actuality of linguistic performance, learners can build their language competence (Kettemann, 1995). Second, the data-driven approach encourages inductive thinking and discovery learning. It stimulates inquiry and speculation and helps learners develop the ability to see patterns in language and form generalizations about them. Learners are also offered a chance to develop research skills (Johns, 1991a, 1991b). Third, learner centeredness and learner autonomy are emphasized in data-driven learning. Any concordancer allows learners to choose their own words to investigate. Learners become very active and the control of learning is placed firmly in their own hands (Stevens, 1995; Sun, 1999; Chen, 2000). The aforementioned advantages are what traditional rule-based instruction lacks. Thus, the concordance-based approach seems to be able to complement the rule-based approach in terms of language learning.

Empirical Studies

Quite a number of researchers have conducted empirical studies on classroom concordancing (e.g., Cobb, 1997, 1999; Sun, 1999; Todd, 2001). Seven empirical studies are reviewed to show what has been known so far about concordancing and language learning. What is common in these studies is that all the participants were at the tertiary school level or above. However, very different research methods were employed to investigate the potential of concordancing in language teaching and learning.

Cobb (1997) conducted a study to examine how concordance software could help first-year ESL learners of Arabic-speaking university students enlarge their vocabulary size. A suite of five familiar CALL-type activities (choosing a definition, finding words, spelling words, choosing words for new texts and writing words for new texts) was grouped under their designed PET・200 program. In order to establish experimental control, two versions of PET・200 were developed to teach students on alternate weeks for 12 weeks. Everything about the two versions was identical except that example sentences were used to replace concordances in the control version. The results showed that the students' vocabulary knowledge was growing faster than an average European secondary student's speed. It is suggested that if multi-contextual learning can facilitate vocabulary acquisition, concordance technology might help solve the problem of lexical growth in language learning. Later, Cobb (1999) conducted another study to investigate the breadth and depth of lexical acquisition with hands-on concordancing. He believed that concordance technology could help learners of English for academic purposes gain broad word knowledge within a short time without sacrificing depth. To prove this, a lexical tutor program called PET・2000 was designed. Students were assigned to learn 200 words per week for 12 weeks. Experimental groups used a concordance software to create their own dictionaries of words to study; control groups used a word list and a dictionary. After a year of testing, a trend emerged. The results showed that both the control and experimental groups made substantial gains in terms of definitional knowledge, while only the concordance groups made significant gains in the transfer of word knowledge to a new reading passage. Moreover, delayed retention tests consistently revealed that control groups did not retain their definitional knowledge, while the concordance groups increased theirs with time. Hands-on concordancing seems to provide a new direction to help students acquire the immense vocabulary they need to begin reading in a subject area.

Sun (1999) investigated Taiwanese EFL students' attitudes toward web-based concordancing. The web-based concordancer in the Virtual Language Center (VLC) (http://vlc.polyu.edu.hk/scripts/concordance/WWWConcapp.htm) at Hong Kong Polytechnic University was used in the study. A three-week web-based concordance lesson was designed and implemented using a sample of 37 college students. A questionnaire was administered to elicit students' attitudes toward web-based concordancing. The results indicated that students in the study had positive attitudes toward web-based concordancing. In terms of the effectiveness of such data-driven learning, the usage of vocabulary was rated highest, and writing proficiency was the lowest. With regard to the difficulties students encountered, the speed of the Internet access was reported to be the most troublesome factor that impeded learning through on-line concordancing.

Someya (2000) investigated the effectiveness of the concordancer as a writing tool for non-native learners of English for business purposes in a three-month experiment. The participants, consisting of 40 Japanese business people in their 20s to 40s, were divided into a control group and an experimental group. Both groups were given the same letter-writing assignments from Test 1 to Test 7. But only the experimental group was specifically instructed to make full use of the concordancer in writing the assignments except for Test 1. No significant difference was observed in the average numbers of errors the two groups made in Test 1. However, the experimental group made significantly fewer errors than the control group in Test 2 through Test 7. The results indicated that the concordancer is an effective tool in reducing some of the most prominent errors found in most interlanguage written messages.

Todd (2001) illustrated postgraduate students' ability to induce valid patterns from self-selected concordances and to use these patterns in self-correcting errors. First, in each student's writing, two content lexical items that had been misused were identified. Students were then asked to search for 10 instances of use of each item on the Internet using FAST Search at http://www.alltheweb.com. Next, they were required to induce patterns from the self-selected concordances and correct their own errors based on the patterns they had induced. The analysis of the progress revealed that learners are able to induce valid patterns from self-selected concordances and to make valid self-corrections of their errors. The findings suggest that if induction from concordances and self-correction are emphasized in teaching, learners can grow less dependent on teachers.

Kennedy and Miceli (2001) reported an evaluation of the effectiveness of college intermediate students' approaches to corpus investigation. First, students were guided through a series of preliminary concordance-based activities. Then the mechanics of their corpus investigation and the difficulties they encountered were reported. The evaluation suggested that while knowledge and experience of the language could cause errors during learners' corpus investigation, incorporating observation and reasoning as well as techniques in corpus searching could reduce other causes of error to a minimum. It was concluded that the training didn't adequately equip the students as corpus researchers, and that specialized skills should be taught to students in order to better equip them as corpus researchers.

From the review of the empirical studies, we can conclude that concordancing can assist students' language learning in vocabulary, grammar, reading and writing as on some adult learners. However, none of the empirical studies involved learners below the tertiary school level and only one study (Sun, 1999) was carried out in Taiwan. Thus, more research is needed to find out if concordancing can be applied at the secondary school level in Taiwan's context. The reason why learners at the secondary level in Taiwan are worth investigation is because the curricular content is fixed in the high school context and passing the entrance exam is the only goal of instruction. Educational innovation is seriously constrained in high schools and it is significant to the field if concordancing is proved to be effective compared with the college context where more flexibility is allowed.

Research Questions

1. Is it feasible to incorporate concordancing into English teaching at the high school level? What problems are encountered from an in-service teacher's perspective?
2. How do different learners perform in terms of vocabulary learning?
   - 2a. How do learners of different English vocabulary levels perform regarding vocabulary learning?
   - 2b. How do learners of different learning styles perform regarding vocabulary learning?
3. What is students' feedback on web-based concordancing?
   - 3a. What are students' attitudes toward the effectiveness of web concordancing on their vocabulary learning?
   - 3b. Do students' preferred English learning styles influence their attitudes toward web concordancing?
   - 3c. What difficulties do students encounter during the concordancing process?

3d. What are students' recommendations about the design of the web concordancer and the concordancing activities?

RESEARCH METHOD

A Pilot Study

A pilot study involving three senior high school students was conducted to investigate the process of web-based concordancing as a window into learners' hypothesis testing and rule induction in English interlanguage (IL) development, and learners' attitudes toward the tool. The results showed that the students were able to get supporting examples from the concordancing output to confirm their hypotheses, give a more complete description about the usage of words, and apply the rules in error correction. The students' feedback also revealed that they had positive attitudes toward the use of the web-based concordancer as a learning tool. Experiences gained from the pilot study were fed back into the design of the main study.

Participants

Participants in the main study involved 46 second-year senior high school students and their English teacher, who was also the researcher of the study. These students were from an intact class and took English as a required course in their high school curriculum. The English course contained six periods per week and each period lasted for 50 minutes. All of the subjects were female, aged around seventeen.

Instruments

Three types of instruments were used in the study. First, three sets of tests (a pretest, a quiz and a posttest) were designed to assess students' vocabulary learning at different points in time. Both the pretest and the posttest contained three testing types--the vocabulary level test (Type I) (Nation, 1990), the multiple-choice cloze test for proficiency testing (Type II) (Hale et al., 1989) and the vocabulary knowledge scale (Type III) (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997) to assess different aspects of vocabulary competence (see Appendix A). The total score was 60 points. Type I and Type II were multiple-choice items, so they were objectively scored and each correct item was given two points. Two raters were involved in scoring the items in Type III on a 0-2 basis. Based on the results of the present, the students were categorized into 3 groups of high, intermediate and low vocabulary levels. The quiz contained the type of the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale only with an open-ended question item to elicit students' recommendations about the design of the concordancing instructional activities as input for the following pedagogical activities.

Secondly, a 10-item sentence-level error correction exercise was designed to get a deeper understanding about the process of individual student's use of the concordancer in vocabulary learning. The 10 items were selected based on the researcher's teaching experiences, and for each item there was only one error and the search word was underlined (see Appendix B). Five students were randomly selected from each of the three vocabulary level groups to work on the error correction exercise individually with the help of the concordancer. To do the error correction exercise, students had to follow three steps. First, before using the concordancer, students had to write down the rules they knew. Next, after reading the concordances, students confirmed their original rules or induced new rules from the concordances. Finally, students had to apply the rules in correcting the errors.

Thirdly, a background questionnaire and an evaluation questionnaire were used in the study to gather perception data. The background questionnaire, which included 13 items, was designed to obtain information about the students' use of computers and the Internet, their English learning and their preferred English learning styles (deductive or inductive). The evaluation questionnaire was used to probe students' perceptions about the web-based concordancing experiences. Twenty-two items in the questionnaire were designed to ascertain students' attitudes toward English learning after using the concordancer, their possible future use of the concordancer in English learning, their attitudes toward concordancing activities, the difficulties they encountered during the process, and their recommendations about the program design of the web concordancer. Students answered the questions on a five-point Likert agreement scale.

Instructional Design

After a survey of four existing concordancers (CobuildDirect Corpus Sampler, Hong-Kong Polytechnic University Web Concordancer, J-BAT KWIC concordancer & National Taiwan Ocean University Web Concordancer), the web concordancer in the Virtual Language Center (VLC) at Hong Kong Polytechnic University was deemed appropriate (http://vlc.polyu.edu.hk/scripts/concordance/WWWConcapp.htm) and used as the instructional tool throughout the study because of its richer environment and fast connection speed. Ten concordancing sessions were incorporated into regular English classes for 10 weeks and each concordancing session lasted for 50 minutes. In the first two concordancing sessions, the teacher gave an overview of the concordancer and demonstrated the functions of the web concordancer. From session 3 to session 10, the teacher designed several tasks based on the content of Lesson 5 to Lesson 12 from the students' English textbooks (*Far East English Reader* for senior high schools, Book III, 施玉惠, 林茂松 & Sarah Brooks, 2000) and students were asked to use the concordancer to complete the tasks individually or in groups.

Data Collection Procedures

Data was collected from both the teacher and the students. The teacher observed the whole concordancing process and kept a diary of her observations from each session. The information included the situation of the network transmission and the difficulties encountered during the process.

In the preparation period of data collection, all the subjects signed a consent form, completed the background questionnaire and took the pretest. The teacher also introduced the web concordancer to the students and trained them to use it. Second, the students were required to do hands-on concordancing. Students were not only guided to find answers to questions given by the teacher but also set free to explore any linguistic feature of their interest. A quiz was administered shortly after concordancing session 6. Moreover, five students from each of the three vocabulary levels were randomly selected to do a sentence-level error correction exercise with the concordancer. The students had to confirm their hypotheses or induce new rules from concordances, and applied the rules in correcting the errors. Last, the evaluation was shortly after the ten concordancing sessions. During this period, the posttest was given and the evaluation questionnaire was distributed to assess students' attitudes toward web-based concordancing.

RESEARCH RESULTS

Findings of the Background Questionnaire

The background questionnaire indicated that the students in the current study had very limited exposure to computer-assisted language learning (CALL) but they were ready to use the Internet. As for their feelings about learning different language skills, the easiest language skill was reported to be reading and the most difficult one, listening. More than half of the students (25 persons, 54.3%) preferred the deduction English learning style (called the deduction group); only seventeen percent of them (8 persons) preferred the induction method (the induction group), and twenty-eight percent of them (13 persons) liked both methods (the combination group).

Students' Performance on the Pretest, Quiz, and Posttest

First, the performance of students at high, intermediate and low vocabulary levels was compared by the statistical procedure, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) in order to determine if there were any statistically significant differences among the three groups' mean scores on the pretest and the posttest. The results showed that there were significant differences among the three groups on the pretest ($F(2/43)=120.21$, $p<.05$). Though the significant differences still existed on the posttest (*F*(2/43)=27.87, p<.05), the gap between the high and low vocabulary levels was narrowed on the posttest in comparison with that on the pretest.On the pretest, the score difference between the high and low vocabulary levels was 22 points (47-25) while the score difference on the posttest was only 17 points (48-31, see Table 1). In other words, after the concordancing learning, the gap between students' scores of the high and low vocabulary levels was reduced by 8%. Students in the low vocabulary level seem to catch up with students in the high vocabulary level in terms of vocabulary learning. Thus concordancing seems to be able to scaffold weak learners in terms of vocabulary learning.

Table 1

The Vocabulary Mean Scores of Learners of the 3 Groups with Different Vocabulary Levels

Vocabulary Level	Number of students	Pretest (mean) Total 60.	Quiz (mean) Total 10.	Posttest (mean) Total 60.
High	15	47.86	7.13	48.63
Intermediate	15	36.10	6.33	39.93
Low	16	25.65	5.37	31.18
Gap between high and low		22/60 (36.6%)		17/60 (28.3%)

Second, the performance of students in the induction, deduction and combination groups was compared (see Table 2). No significant differences were found among the three groups for both the pretest and posttest. But students of the induction group seemed to benefit most from the concordancing learning experiences, because the induction group had the largest gain score (7 points, 44.68-33.93) in the posttest compared with those of the deduction and combination groups: 1 point and 5 points respectively. Before concordancing was introduced, English language instruction was dominated by a deductive approach and students who preferred deduction performed better on the pretest. After the concordancing sessions were incorporated into English classes, students of the induction group made some progress in the posttest and even slightly outperformed the other two groups. Thus students who preferred induction seemed to benefit most from the concordancing among those with the three learning styles.

Table 2

The Mean Scores of Learners of the 3 Groups with Different English Learning Styles

Learning style	Number of students	Pretest (mean) Total = 60.	Quiz (mean) Total =10.	Posttest (mean) Total =60.
Induction	8	33.93	7.12	41.68
Combination	13	34.57	6.38	39.92
Deduction	25	37.96	5.92	39.00

In addition, we investigated the interaction effects of preferred English learning style and vocabulary level. The results showed that no matter which method students preferred, the web concordancing was more beneficial to students at a low vocabulary level. But students at a low vocabulary level benefited more from web concordancing if they preferred to learn English inductively.

Results of the Error Correction Exercise

While the comparison above among learners of different vocabulary levels shows the product of concordancing learning, the comparison of the error correction exercise shows how different learners made progress by providing process data. Before using the concordancer, students of the three groups of high, intermediate and low vocabulary levels made 18, 16 and 11 correct initial hypotheses respectively. After using the concordancer, they corrected another 19, 19 and 21 errors respectively by rectifying some initial hypotheses or inducing new correct rules from concordances. The total number of errors corrected for the three groups was 37, 35 and 32 respectively. Without the help of the concordancer, the difference between the high and low vocabulary levels was 7 items initially. With the help of the concordancer, the difference was narrowed to 5 items. Though students of the low vocabulary level did not have the same prior English knowledge as the students of the high vocabulary level, with the help of the concordancer, it seems that the students of the low vocabulary level could catch up with the students of the high vocabulary level via hypothesis confirmation and rule induction.

Table 3

Results of the Error Correction Exercise from Students at Different Vocabulary Levels

Total = 50 items	High	Intermediate	Low
1. Before using the concordancer (correct initial hypotheses)	18	16	11
2. After using the concordancer (rectify original hypotheses or induce new correct rules)	19	19	21
3. Number of errors corrected	37	35	32

Findings of the Evaluation Questionnaire

When asked about the possible future use of the concordancer in English learning, fifty-four percent of the students (54.3%) said they would make use of the concordancer in their future English learning. Getting systematic data easily (36%), acquiring more English knowledge (16%) and knowing one more learning channel (8%) were the main reasons reported by the students. As to those who chose not to learn English from concordances (45.7%), their reasons included their uncertain judgments (38.1%), the troublesomeness of learning English from computers (19%), waste of time (9.5%), their low English proficiency (9.5%) and the unfamiliarity of learning English from computers (9.5%). If we anticipate that students would be willing to use concordancing often to assist in their language learning, adequate learner training in concordancing use is required.

Table 4 shows the responses on aspects of vocabulary learning, which students perceived positively via concordancing help, with a mean score of 3.29 on a five-point Likert scale. The greatest benefit of concordancing on vocabulary learning was reported to be word usage, derivatives, affixes and collocates. However, spelling and pronunciation were considered to be the least likely to benefit from using the on-line concordancer.

Table 4
Learners' Attitudes Toward Concordancing Activities

第 3-11 題 (1 非常不同意 2 不同意 3 沒意見 4 同意 5 非常同意)	Mean	Rank
5. Concordancer 可幫助我學習英文單字的用法。	3.74	1
7. Concordancer 可幫助我學習英文單字的衍生字。	3.72	2
4. Concordancer 可幫助我學習英文單字的字根、字首和字尾。	3.63	3
8. Concordancer 可幫助我學習英文單字的搭配字。	3.61	4
10. Concordancer 可幫助我學習同義字的不同用法。	3.26	5
6. Concordancer 可幫助我學習英文單字的意義。	3.24	6
11.當我對英文單字有問題時，Concordancer 可幫助我找到答案。	3.13	7
3. Concordancer 可加深我記憶英文單字的拼法。	2.89	8
9. Concordancer 可幫助我學習英文單字的發音。	2.43	9
總平均數	3.29	

To investigate whether students' preferred English learning styles influenced their attitudes toward web concordancing, we compared the attitudes of the students from the three leaerning styles-- the deduction, induction and combination groups toward web concordancing. The results indicate that students in the induction group held more positive attitudes toward web concordancing than students in the deduction and combination groups.

With regard to the weaknesses of web-based concordancing, the speed of the Internet connection (mean = 4.04), the pictureless interface (mean = 4.0) and the instability of the Internet connection (mean = 3.91) were the most troublesome factors for learning through on-line concordancing. Other minor problems included the chopped-off concordance lines, unfamiliar vocabulary in the concordance output, the difficulty of inducing rules from concordances, time consumed on data analysis, the complex operation of the concordancer functions, and limited access to computers and the Internet. However, the authentic corpus data did not constitute a major problem in students' learning through on-line concordancing (mean = 2.74).

DISCUSSION

This study aimed to investigate the feasibility of incorporating concordancing into the regular EFL high school English curriculum, to examine individual differences in web concordancing and to elicit learners' feedback on web concordancing.

With careful planning and appropriate training, concordancers can be useful at the high school level. Students are capable of undertaking research into areas of language item they are having difficulties with or make discoveries for themselves. Concordancing can help develop students' language learning skills and promote independent and group learning. Teachers' intervention and students' cooperation can further improve the effectiveness of concordance-based language learning. Despite the advantages, constraints on use at the secondary level of instruction point to teachers' computer lab management, limited lab time and technical problems.

To investigate whether learners' individual differences played a role in the concordancing learning, students' English vocabulary levels and their preferred English learning styles were considered. The results revealed that concordancing can improve weak learners' performance, and is more effective for inductive learners.

Overall, the students in the current study viewed the concordancing positively. In particular, students of the induction group valued the use of the concordancer more. Though concordancing is considered a useful learning tool, computer-related difficulties such as the speed and stability of the Internet connection and the unfriendly interface should be minimized. A more user-friendly environment can definitely facilitate concordance-based learning.

CONCLUSION

This study explored the feasibility of using a concordancer in a senior high setting. There are three methodological limitations in the study that should be improved in future research. First, as the participants are from an intact class rather than randomly selected, the results may not be generalizable to the whole population. Second, the limited number of participants in each group of vocabulary levels and learning styles may make it difficult for the researcher to draw inferences without further studies. Finally, as the first author served as the instructor in the concordancing sessions, this study might have the researcher expectancy problem.

Future research can be done in the following directions. Long-term studies involving more participants in each group should be conducted to find out if concordancing produces the beneficial effects the current study claims. In addition, future research with better control may be conducted to determine whether concordancing is effective for learners of different vocabulary levels and different learning styles. Controlled comparisons between a control group and an experimental group may be attempted to ascertain the effectiveness of concordance-based language learning.

Three pedagogical implications can be drawn. Due to the advances in computer technology, using computers as resources for teaching is an inevitable trend. A concordancer is one of a number of CALL options which can be of use in high schools. Concordancers bring to the students abundant examples of authentic language data. The context-rich texts can serve as input and as a basis for activities to facilitate language acquisition. In the traditional language classroom, teachers are regarded as authoritative knowledge transmitters, and students become their passive audience and work on the same materials at the same pace. However, under the data-driven learning (DDL) approach, students start with a question and then come to their conclusions after analyzing the corpus data. Students are not seen simply as recipients of knowledge; they are liberated from teacher-directed learning and are able to choose their own words to investigate and make their own discoveries. The major advantage of the DDL approach is that it encourages students to take responsibility for their language learning. It was found that overall students in the current study held positive attitudes toward concordancing. The students worked hard to complete the concordancing tasks and each student was able to work at her own pace. The instructor found more time to go around the class and help each student according to her personal needs. Concordance-based langugae learning really puts the learners, not the teacher at the center of the language learning process.

One finding of the current study was that students in the low vocabulary level and induction group performed better with the help of the concordancer. Thus, we must reconsider the way English is traditionally taught in many language classes. Currently language teaching in Taiwan is dominated by the deduction method. Integrating concordancing into the curriculum may help to strike a balance between the induction and deduction methods, and improve weak learners' performance in language learning. It is believed that we can develop students' potential of being linguistic researchers once they are given the opportunity.

The study also found that the practical aspects of using web-based concordancing are crucial for its successful adoption into the English curriculum. First, accessibility to the Internet had a great influence on the use of the web concordancers for English learning. With a slow connection speed and unstable connection, students might lose patience toward the learning tool and turn to dictionaries or other reference books. Since students' attitudes pose no major obstacle to the introduction of concordancing in high schools, once technical problems are solved, concordancers can be useful at the secondary school level. In addition, students are used to colorful, well-organized textbooks. Concordancer software designers must try to make the key-word-in-context (KWIC) display more visually-palatable. Furthermore, at present the computer labs in school are fully utilized every period of the school day for the teaching of computer studies. If the use of computers as cross-curricular learning tools is to be encouraged, money has to be invested to expand the computer facilities.

Obviously, the DDL approach suggests a move away from unnatural, simplified textbook English to authentic English and represents a paradigm shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered classrooms. This revolutionary shift could eventually have extensive effects on the role of teachers and the classroom teaching materials. Teachers' perception of language learning has to change and the pedagogical design must give more control to learners. With more flexible learning activities, students will also have a better opportunity to develop their language and get a more balanced picture of the language. At the beginning when students may not be used to the DDL approach, teachers must guide learners through a series of preparatory concordance-based activities. Once students are familiar with the DDL approach, students' English learning can be promoted via concordancing.

To sum up, technology alone is not what makes a difference in language learning. The use of the technology coupled with sound pedagogical principles is necessary. It is believed that with careful planning, a potentially valuable learning tool, the concordancer, can make its contribution to English teaching at the secondary school level in Taiwan.

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APPENDIX I

Sample Questions in the Pretest

一、請選擇與題目中單字意義相似的選項。

1. twelve (a) meter (b) length (c) dozen (d) metal

二、克漏字：請依前後文選擇正確選項。

A. Today, robots are already being used in many ways. They are common in factories, especially automobile factories. A robot is ideal for _1_ heavy objects or for doing repetitive tasks like _2_ in bolts and painting car parts. Scientists also use robots to handle dangerous materials or to do work under the sea or in outer space. Doctors use them to do more accurate _3_.

1. (a) existing (b) waking (c) lifting (d) accepting
2. (a) serving (b) screwing (c) warning (d) fearing
3. (a) surgery (b) clinic (c) weapon (d) sacrifice

三、請用題目中的單字造一句合乎英文文法的句子。

1. remind

APPENDIX II

Questions in the Error Correction Exercise

句子中被劃底線的英文單字使用錯誤，請從 concordances 中歸納規則並更正錯誤，使句子合乎文法。

步驟一：未使用 concordancer 前，我所知道的規則。

步驟二：從 concordances 中歸納的規則。

步驟三：更正錯誤，使句子合乎文法。

1. My little sister afraids dogs, because she has been bitten by dogs.
2. It is not easy to respond such a complicated question.
3. He refused to comment what caused the car accident.
4. We congratulated his good exam results.
5. Most parents teach their children to wary strangers.
6. Tim insisted to pay for the meal yesterday.
7. The writer describes his father loving and generous.
8. Simon is very popular in school. He has plenty friends.
9. To make this cake, you'll need about two dozens eggs.
10. He jumped into the river and saved the girl. Everyone admired at his courage.

APPENDIX Ⅲ

Background Questionnaire

第 10-13 題：學習方法方面

10. 在我過去的英語學習過程中，老師較常使用何種方法教學？

□ 演繹法　□ 歸納法　□ 兩種方法各半

11. □ 學英文時，我較喜歡老師先列舉規則，然後再提供實例給我練習。

1 非常不同意　2 不同意　3 沒意見　4 同意　5 非常同意

12. □ 學英文時，我較喜歡老師提供眾多實例讓我分析歸納，從中學習。

1 非常不同意　2 不同意　3 沒意見　4 同意　5 非常同意

13. 就學習英文而言，我個人較喜歡何種學習法？

□ 演繹法　□ 歸納法　□ 兩種方法都喜歡

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高中生利用網路關鍵字前後文索引工具—以學習英文字彙之研究

摘要

網路關鍵字前後文索引工具對外語學習而言是一個比較新的學習工具，它可提供使用者搜尋語料庫中的任何字詞，並鼓勵歸納性思考和發現學習。本研究旨在探討（一）索引工具納入高中英語課程之可行性，（二）學習者的字彙程度和其較喜好的英語學習方式(歸納法或演繹法)是否影響用索引工具學習英語字彙之效能，及（三）學習者對此工具的反應。四十六位來自同一個班級的高二學生參與此研究。我們在正規的英語課程中，以十節課時間讓受試者在電腦室利用索引工具完成規定的作業。所有受試者的字彙學習情況皆接受前測、小考及後測評量。我們也設計一份改錯練習以瞭解受試者個別使用索引工具的情形。本實驗進行之前及結束後，受試者各填寫一份背景問卷及一份評估索引工具的問卷。研究結果顯示出利用索引工具學習英語是有效的語言學習方式，尤能幫助字彙程度弱及喜好以歸納法學習英文的同學。若能有細心的規劃及適當的引導，索引工具能有效地納入中等教育的語言課程中，並能對語言學習有幫助。

關鍵詞: 網路關鍵字前後文索引工具　語料庫　英語學習方式

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Predicting Second Language Reading Ability: A Reexamination of the Threshold Hypothesis Exploring the Contributions of Intrinsic Motivation

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Abstract

This study investigates factors that predict students' L2 (second language) reading ability. In addition, it extends earlier research on L2 reading by examining the contribution of motivation to L2 reading ability, and by analyzing the collected data with path analysis. Overall, the results of the present study corroborated the line of research on the Threshold Hypothesis—a positive transfer exists between L1 and L2 reading, but the degree of transfer is dependent upon learners' L2 language proficiency. English language proficiency, Chinese reading ability, and intrinsic motivation each made a significant unique contribution to the students' English reading ability; together they predicted 57% of the variance. The results of path analysis indicated that each of the predictor variables directly influenced L2 reading ability. In addition, L1 reading and intrinsic motivation each had indirect effects on L2 reading ability via L2 language proficiency. These findings indicate the important roles of L1 reading ability and intrinsic motivation in L2 reading ability. Some important pedagogical implications can be drawn from the review of literature and the results of the present study.

Key Words: threshold hypothesis, transfer, path analysis

INTRODUCTION

This study investigates factors that predict students' ability to read with understanding in a second language. In particular, it attempts to replicate earlier research on the Threshold Hypothesis—that reading abilities gained in one's first language transfer to reading in a second language only after a certain threshold level of proficiency has been reached in the second language. In addition, it extends earlier research on second language reading by examining the contribution of motivation to second language reading proficiency, and by analyzing the collected data with path analysis.

One of the controversial research issues in second language reading involves whether second language (L2) reading is a reading problem or a language problem. Since the 1970s, there has been a debate about transfer of reading comprehension from L1 to L2. On the one side, some researchers insist that inefficient L2 reading is closely related to limited L2 knowledge. On the other side, some researchers claim that success in reading a foreign language lies in one's first-language (L1) reading ability rather than in his or her level of language proficiency. Despite the controversies over the issue, there has been general agreement that transfer from L1 to L2 does occur (e.g. Koda, 1993; Laufer and Sim, 1985; Wang and Qi, 1991). What remains to be clarified is: under what condition transfer takes place, and what component or combination of components can best predict the success of L2 best.

THRESHOLD HYPOTHESIS OR SHORT CIRCUIT HYPOTHESIS

Clarke (1979) first introduced the concept of a "language threshold," or limited control over the second language, which "short circuits" transfer of reading abilities acquired in L1 to L2 reading. Clarke addressed one of his research questions in his 1980 study: Do proficient L1 readers transfer their reading skills to the second language? The results of his research indicate that there is some transfer of skills, that is, good readers perform better than the poor readers in both languages, but limited language proficiency appears to exert a powerful effect on the behaviors utilized by the readers. Apparently, "limited control over the language 'short circuits' the good reader's system, causing him/her to revert to poor reader strategies when confronted with a difficult or confusing task in the second language" (Clarke, 1980, p. 206).

Cummins' (1979, 1981) Threshold Hypothesis is similar to Clarke's Short Circuit Hypothesis. Cummins asserted that language transfer occurs only after a threshold level of L2 proficiency has been attained. Cziko (1978) argues for the existence of a developmental order in the ability of the L2 reader to use syntactic, semantic, and discourse constraints. Thus, some threshold of L2 proficiency appears to exist for ESL learners to maintain their competence while reading in the L2.

Synthesizing Clarke, Cummins and Cziko, we could arrive at a statement that L2 readers will not be able to read as well as they do in their native language, and that positive transfer of effective L1 reading skills to L2 reading tends to occur only after the L2 readers have reached a threshold level of competence.

RECENT STUDIES TESTING THE THRESHOLD HYPOTHESIS

Based on previous research and theories, some researchers conducted empirical studies to test the Threshold or the Short Circuit Hypothesis during the last decade. For example, Carrell (1991) investigated, in a single study, "the effects on second language reading of the following: (1) reading ability in the first language, and (2) level of language proficiency in the second language" (p. 161). The results reflect that both L1 reading ability and L2 proficiency have significant effects on L2 reading ability. This suggests "that, while both factors--first language reading ability and proficiency in the second language--may be significant in second language reading, the relative importance may be due to other factors about the learner and the learning environment" (p. 168).

Brisbois (1995) used L1 reading, L2 vocabulary, and L2 grammatical skills as independent variables, and L2 reading comprehension as the dependent variable to test the relationship between L1 reading and L2 reading. Overall, this study supports Cummins' (1979, 1981) Interdependence and Threshold Hypotheses, which, put together, state that language transfer is possible only after a threshold level of L2 proficiency has been crossed. Both L1 reading and L2 language proficiency (vocabulary knowledge and grammatical skills) are essential to L2 reading comprehension. In other words, L2 knowledge plays a pivotal role in the early stages of L2 reading development. In the later stages, when L2 proficiency has passed the threshold, ESL learners would be expected to increase transfer from the L1 to L2 and, thus, the contribution of L1 reading to L2 reading would increase as well. Brisbois suggested in conclusion that affective factors should be included in the independent variables. Although Brisbois did not specify what affective factors she had in mind, motivation, according to Fransson (1984), is one of the affective factors.

Similarly, Taillefer (1996) chose L1 reading ability and L2 proficiency as independent variables, and L2 reading comprehension as the dependent variable to test the Short-Circuit Hypothesis. While both predictor variables showed statistically significant relationships to the criterion variables in this study, their relative importance appeared to depend on the reading task as well as the reader's L2 proficiency. At the end of the paper, Taillefer (1996) argued that "the L2 reading = L1 reading + L2 language proficiency equation explains only part (and sometimes none) of L2 performance. Social and psychological concerns relevant to the learning environment (e.g., ...,self-confidence, motivation, etc.) have been identified ... tangibly in the classroom as factors to be considered" (p. 474). However, measuring these elusive variables and somehow accounting for them seems problematic at best.

Lee and Schallert (1997) conducted an impressive empirical study to test the Threshold Hypothesis in an ESL context and to explore the relative contributions of L2 proficiency and L1 reading ability to L2 reading ability. Lee and Schallert used a multiple regression procedure with L1 reading scores and L2 proficiency scores as independent variables and L2 reading scores as the dependent variable. The results indicated that L2 proficiency made a greater contribution to predicting L2 reading comprehension than did L1 reading, and that the correlation between L1 and L2 reading increased with L2 proficiency. Lee and Schallert suggested at the end of the research paper that "further research is indicated to elucidate the residual variance that was not accounted for by the measures used to predict L2 reading ability" (p. 736).

Synthesizing Carrell's (1991), Brisbois' (1995), Taillefer's (1996), and Lee and Schallert's (1997) studies testing the Threshold Hypothesis, we can find three elements in common. First, they all utilized L1 reading, L2 proficiency (vocabulary knowledge and L2 grammatical skills) as independent variables to account for the variance in L2 reading. Second, they all suggested that some other factors or the motivation factor in particular should be included in future research. Third, they all used multiple regression to analyze data.

MOTIVATION AND L2 LEARNING

Because of the complexity and difficulties of learning an L2, stimulating and sustaining student motivation is a key ingredient for teaching an L2 successfully. "Some L2 learners do better than others because they are better motivated" (Cook, 1996, p. 96). In the field of second language acquisition, Gardner and Lambert (1959) are the early scholars who laid the foundation of the theory of L2 learning motivation. Gardner and Tremblay (1994) defined motivation as effort paired with desire to achieve the goal of mastering the language. From this perspective, motivation is promoted to varying degrees by certain goals or orientations toward learning the target language.

Generally, two distinct goals toward learning the L2 can be categorized: (a) the integrative orientation, or a desire to learn the L2 in order to interact and identify with members from the L2 community; and (b) the instrumental orientation, which refers to a desire to learn the L2 to achieve some practical goal (Gardner & Tremblay, 1972).

L2 motivation should not be regarded as a forced choice between these two goals toward learning (Cook, 1996). Gardner's early studies showed that integrative motivation was more powerful than instrumental motivation because the L2 learner's ultimate goal was not only to attain language competence but also to achieve "psychological integration" with the target culture.

In a more recent study, however, Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) found that instrumental motivation was also an effective factor in L2 learning and integrative motivation may not necessarily be superior to instrumental motivation. Those students who are integratively motivated are probably more successful at an advanced language level than those who are not. Therefore, both types are important. An ESL learner might learn an L2 well with an integrative motivation or with an instrumental one, or indeed with both, for one does not rule out the other.

The relative importance of these two types of motivations, according to Gardner (1985), has been shown to vary from one part of the world to another. In Montreal learners of French tend to be integratively motivated, in the Philippines learners of English tend to be instrumentally motivated. In terms of Gardner and Tremblay's (1972, 1994) definition, an integrative motivation is similar to an intrinsic motivation; an instrumental motivation resembles an extrinsic motivation.

People who are intrinsically motivated feel that they are doing an activity because they have chosen to do so of their own free will and because the activity is a challenge to their existing competencies and creative capabilities. This type of motivation is regarded as highly self-determined in that the reason for doing the activity is closely related to the individual's positive feelings while engaged in the task.

Comparatively speaking, much less research has been done on the relationships between motivation, either intrinsic or extrinsic, and L2 reading comprehension. Most of the studies in this line of research confirmed the positive relationship between motivation and second language learning.

Titone (1982) explored the concepts and roles of motivation and attitude in relation to second language learning. Motivation, according to the author, could be characterized as primary or derivative, and intrinsic or extrinsic. Motivation and attitudes played an important role in all situations which were not natural, such as school language instruction. Results supported the researcher's prediction. Titone's follow-up study in 1990 provided strong support for his former finding that stimulating motivation, either intrinsic or extrinsic, and developing sound attitudes was the first step toward achievement of bilingualism.

Using Japanese participants, Kamada (1986) collected data and analyzed motivation towards English learning in an ESL context. The four stages of learning (initial engagement, process, disengagement, and re-engagement) were shown to emit different processes of learning in students based on whether learning was intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. The researcher reported that most students in Japan were extrinsically motivated to learn English. Such students were focused on achieving the external reward, which in this case is proficiency in English on entrance examinations for higher education institutions. The emphasis was on the end product of education. Here, students tended to short-cut the learning process, used less information, and developed fewer learning strategies.

In their correlational study, Tachibana, Matsukawa, and Zhong (1996) found that Japanese students' interest in English was related to increased intrinsic motivation, more determination to achieve better English scores, and a greater likelihood of achieving high scores. Ehrman (1996) maintained that intrinsic motivation correlated positively with reading proficiencies.

Wen's (1997) study investigated the motivational factors of students who were from Asian and Asian-American backgrounds and learned Chinese at the university level in the United States. One hundred and twenty-two students from six Chinese classes at two American universities participated in this study. Of all questionnaires sent, 90 percent were returned. However, the study only presented the sample of 77 students from Asian and Asian-American backgrounds. The ethnic compositions of the sample included 59 Asian-Americans, 6 Vietnamese, 2 Japanese, 4 Indonesian, 3 Korean, 2 Malaysian, and 2 Thai. It should be noted that even though most of the students in the study could speak or understand a Chinese dialect, they had little language background in Mandarin Chinese when they enrolled in beginning Chinese courses. Mandarin Chinese, therefore, was regarded as a second language to these participants.

The results of the study indicated that intrinsic interest in Chinese culture was the initial motivation for students to start learning the Chinese language. Expectations of learning task and effort kept students continuing their Chinese at the intermediate level. In addition, motivational factors correlated significantly with desired learning outcomes from the expectancy theory. Students' intrinsic interest in Chinese culture demonstrates their intrinsic motivation for learning Chinese. On the other hand, their expectations of learning task and effort demonstrate their extrinsic motivation for learning Chinese. Based on the findings, motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic, plays an important role in L2 learning.

Kang (1999) reported his research on the language use patterns, motivations and attitudes toward Americans or the British in the formal ESL classroom, changes in orientations and motivations, and instructional preference of limited-English-proficient Korean high school students. The subjects in the study were 40 male and 40 female students randomly selected from two Korean high schools in 1995.

Results revealed that the students' language use was restricted to instrumental purposes, and that their orientation was intrinsic and extrinsic as well as instrumental and integrative. In addition, females reported that they felt more positive about the target language, culture, or community than did males.

An impressive survey was conducted by Noels, Clément, and Pelletier (1999) to examine how students' perceptions of their teachers' communicative style are related to students' extrinsic and intrinsic motivational orientations. They also examined the link between these variables and various language learning outcomes, including effort, anxiety, and language competence. Correlational analyses reflect that stronger feelings of intrinsic motivation are related to positive language learning outcomes, including greater motivational intensity (r [78] = .39, $p < .01$), greater self-evaluations of competence (r [78] = .34, $p < .01$), and a reduction in anxiety (r [78] = -.24, $p < .05$). Moreover, perceptions of the teacher's communicative style are related to intrinsic motivation, such that the more controlling and the less informative students perceived the teacher to be, the lower students' intrinsic motivation was.

In addition to supporting the effects of intrinsic motivation on learning outcomes, this study found a close relationship between teachers' communicative style and students' learning interest. The results indicated that the correlation between intrinsic motivation was negatively associated with perceiving the teacher as controlling (r [78] = -.23, $p < .01$), and positively associated with perceiving the teacher as informative (r [78] = .34, $p < .01$).

Generally, the findings of Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand's (2000) study were consistent with the previous researchers' discussions of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation in the related area of education (e.g., Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993), indicating that motivational principles relevant in other settings may parallel some motivational constructs in the L2 domain, and that positive correlations occur between intrinsic motivation and L2 learning. Although correlations do not indicate causation, the correlational pattern is consistent with the theoretical prediction that increased intrinsic motivation is linked with better L2 achievement.

In summary, this line of research suggests that intrinsic motivation effectively contributes to a reduction in class anxiety and produces positive L2 learning outcomes. Students' intrinsic motivation usually increases with teachers' supporting autonomy and positive feedback. In turn, increased intrinsic motivation improves students' L2 learning outcomes. There has been a debate over the value of extrinsic motivation for L2 learning, but few researchers have denied the pivotal role of intrinsic motivation in L2 learning.

Overall, the aforementioned theories and empirical studies about motivation corroborate Brisbois' (1995), Taillefer's (1996) and Lee and Schallert's (1997) suggestions in their studies that future researchers should include affective factors such as motivation when predicting or accounting for the relative contribution of some essential factors to L2 reading performance. On the basis of the studies described above, two research hypotheses were formulated for the present study.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

1. L2 language proficiency (L2 vocabulary knowledge and L2 grammatical knowledge), L1 reading ability, and intrinsic motivation are the main factors contributing to English reading ability, each of these factors making a significant unique contribution.

2. The correlation between L1 reading ability and L2 reading ability will be greater for high levels of L2 proficiency, and will be non-significant for students at the lowest levels of L2 proficiency.

METHODOLOGY

Sampling

This study used convenience sampling to select participants. Convenience sampling is a category of nonprobability sampling. According to McMillan and Schumacher (1997), nonprobability sampling does not involve any type of random sampling. Rather, the researcher used subjects who happen to be accessible or who may represent certain types of characteristics. There is one important limitation about convenience sampling; that is, the generalizability of the findings will be limited to the characteristics of the participants. "This does not mean that the findings are not useful; it is simply means that caution is needed in generalizing" (McMillan & Schumacher, p. 169).

In the present study, two schools in southern Taiwan were chosen because some teachers in these two schools expressed through e-mail their interest in this research and were willing to cooperate with the author to administer the tests. The four intact classes, however, were randomly selected from the two schools.

In order to seek a wide variability in their L2 language proficiency, participants were chosen from two high schools located in different school districts in southern Taiwan. One is located in Tainan City, and the other in Tainan County. This consideration of sampling from different locations could reasonably increase the external population and ecological validity.

There are two types of high school in Taiwan: regular and vocational. Generally, students go to different high schools according to their interests and differential scores on the annual entrance examination. Two different schools usually represent two levels of academic achievement and distinct learning orientations.

One of the schools in the present study was a regular high school, students of which studies several subjects in order to pass the entrance examination to go to college. In theory, students in this type of school should be relatively proficient in English and Chinese. The other was a vocational school, the focus of which is to provide students with the skills and training they will need for a particular job after graduation. It seems that the participants from two different types of high school approximately represent most of high school students in Taiwan or at least in southern Taiwan. Thus, this consideration could also enhance the generalizability to other populations and settings.

Participants

The participants in this study were 182 1st-year students (equivalent to 9th or 10th graders in the United States) selected from four intact classes in two high schools in southern Taiwan. The participants ranged in age from 15 to 17 (mean age = 16.02).

Chinese (or Mandarin) is the participants' first language (L1) and English their second language (L2). They all come from middle-class families, and are all average students in terms of their test scores on the high school entrance examination. In summary, the participants in this study are average students at the same grade and with a middle-class background; English lessons are usually the only chance for them to learn a second language.

Grouping Procedure

In the process of data analysis, the students were first grouped into six levels based on their L2 proficiency test scores. The choice of 6 levels allowed us to capture a reasonable amount of continuity represented in the variable of L2 proficiency in groups of about 30 students. After that, for the sake of triangulation, students were re-aggregated into three groups by dividing approximately the range of students' English proficiency test scores into three groups (13-26; 27-40; 41-55).

Measures

Three written tests were administered in this study: an English language proficiency test, an English reading comprehension test, and a Chinese reading comprehension test. Additionally, a questionnaire was administered to measure students' types of motivation for learning English.

The English Language Proficiency Test

According to the recent studies on the Threshold Hypothesis (e.g., Brisbois, 1995; Lee & Schallert, 1997), an assessment at an individual's L2 vocabulary and grammar knowledge is a valid predictor of L2 proficiency validly. English vocabulary knowledge and ability to judge grammaticality, therefore, were measured to assess English language proficiency in the present study.

Test items were given by an experienced EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teacher and edited by native speakers of English who have taught reading instruction for years. After a pilot study with 46 students, the final version of this test consisted of 60 items, and the value for the coefficient alpha of this test was .88, indicating that the reliability of this instrument was acceptable.

The first section of the English language proficiency test included 30 items to assess students' vocabulary knowledge. The items are of different parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The value for the coefficient alpha on this section was .87. The second section of the English language proficiency test included 30 four-alternative multiple-choice items to assess students' ability to judge the grammaticality of sentences presented to them. The items involved 12 grammatical categories: plurals, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, possessives, conjunctions, gerunds, infinitives, present and past participles, questions, subjunctive mood, and prepositions. The value for coefficient alpha on this section was .68.

The English Reading Comprehension Test

The English reading comprehension test was given by experienced EFL teachers and edited by native speakers of English. The first passage was selected from Broukal's (1993) Weaving It Together (Book 2); three other different passages were selected from Mikulecky and Jeffries' (1998) Reading Power (2nd ed.). Each of the passages was followed by five four-alternative multiple choice questions According to the authors, these two books are suitable for intermediate students; therefore, average participants in the present study should have been be able to comprehend the main idea of the passages.

The first two passages were chosen mainly to measure such reading comprehension skills as scanning (e.g., "This passage was written by…."), and looking for the topic or the main idea (e.g., "This article is about…."); the last two passages were chosen primarily to assess students' abilities to predict and make inferences from the passages (e.g., "What do you think will happen after this?). According to Mikulecky and Jeffries (1998), scanning, looking for the main idea, predicting and making inferences from the passages are all essential and necessary reading skills. Good readers use these reading skills all the time as they read.

In order to control (or minimize) any effects of content (Abu-Rabia, 1996, 1998; Anderson & Gipe, 1983), all four texts were on common topics: potatoes, an artist and her style, an adventure story, and a story about a family. All items were given multiple choice for objectivity in scoring (Linn & Gronlund, 1955). One pilot study was done to modify the wording and distracters to make sure of the clarity of the questions and the correct answers. The value for the coefficient alpha on this test was .71, suggesting that the reliability of the instrument was acceptable.

The Chinese Reading Comprehension Test

The Chinese reading comprehension test was given by experienced high school Chinese teachers in Taiwan. Six passages and 20 items were selected from participants' textbooks mainly to test students' grasping the main idea, skills of scanning, and looking for a topic, ability to predict ability, and inferential understanding of the passages. Like the English reading passages, these passages on the test were not studied by the participants beforehand. All the items were multiple choice. The value for the coefficient alpha on this test was .62, suggesting the reliability of this instrument was acceptable.

Questionnaire on Motivation for Learning English

The questionnaire was based on Noels, et al.'s (2000) Language Learning Orientations Scale (LLOS) assessing students' motivation for learning English. To determine the best items for each of the motivation subscales, the researcher conducted "exploratory factor analyses … using maximum likelihood extraction technique followed by oblique rotation" (Noels et al., 2000, p. 68). The results indicated that the Cronbach alpha index of internal consistency was acceptable for all subscales, varying between .67 and .88.

With permission of by Noels and two other researchers, most of the items on the intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation subscales in the LLOS were adopted and translated into Chinese to make sure of students' comprehension of the items. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items, with 10 items to measure intrinsic motivation (e.g., "Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the English community and their way of life.") and 10 items to measure extrinsic motivation (e.g., "In order to get a more prestigious job later on.").

Based on Deci and Ryan's (1985) definition, there are two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is the "innate, natural propensity to engage one's interests and exercise one's capacities, and in so doing, to seek and conquer optimal challenges" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 43). By contrast, extrinsic motivation refers to motivation to perform an activity due not to inherent interest in the activity, but for some practical purposes. The questionnaire used in the present study reflected these definitions. The coefficient alpha on the first section of the questionnaire, "Intrinsic Motivation," was .87, and .72 on the second section, "Extrinsic Motivation." These two values suggested that the reliability for the questionnaire was acceptable.

The participants rated the extent to which the proposed reason reflected his or her reason for learning English by using a 7-point Likert scale. The scoring of a Likert scale is based on assigning weights from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) for each position on the scale.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Data collection was completed during late December of 2000 and January of 2001 in southern Taiwan. The official tests were administered in Taiwan very near the end of the first semester, just a few days before the final day.

In order to minimize any possible effects (e.g., fatigue) on the test results, we administered the tests during two days. On the first day (Jan. 15th), the participants first completed the motivation questionnaire, followed by "The English Language Proficiency Test." The next day (Jan. 16th), the participants first took the Chinese reading test and finally the English reading test. These two reading tests were scheduled on the same day in order that participants could probably use similar reading strategies across these two tests.

RESULTS

Hypothesis # 1.

In order to test this hypothesis, multiple regression analyses were computed using SPSS.

Table 1

Summary of a Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis

Predictor Variable	b	SE_b	Beta	R^2	R^2 Change	F Change
EP	.14	.03	.46	.53	.53	203.43**
CR	.22	.07	.20	.56	.03	11.31**
IM	.06	.03	.20	.57	.01	5.78*
EM[a]						

Notes. EP = English language proficiency; CR = Chinese reading; IM = intrinsic motivation; EM = extrinsic motivation. Criterion variable = L2 (English) reading ability.

*p < .05; **p < .01.

[a] Variable excluded.

The results in Table 1 and Table 2 indicate that the coefficient of determination (R^2) for the combination of English language proficiency, Chinese reading, and intrinsic motivation was .57, and that each of the predictor variables made a significant contribution to the criterion variable, English reading. These findings confirmed the first hypothesis that the predictor variables L1 reading ability, L2 language proficiency, and intrinsic motivation to learn L2 can make a significant contribution to the success of the criterion variable, L2 reading ability.

Table 2
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Predictor Variable Change		b	SE$_b$	Beta	R^2	R^2 Change	F
1.	EP	.14	.03	.46	.53	.53	203.43**
	CR	.22	.07	.20	.55	.03	11.31**
	IM	.06	.03	.20	.57	.02	5.78*
2.	CR	.22	.07	.20	.32	.32	85.84**
	IM	.06	.03	.20	.51	.18	66.27**
	EP	.14	.03	.46	.57	.07	27.67**
3.	IM	.06	.03	.20	.43	.43	137.64**
	EP	.14	.03	.46	.55	.11	45.20**
	CR	.22	.07	.20	.57	.03	10.31**

Notes. EP = English language proficiency; CR = Chinese reading; IM = intrinsic motivation.
Criterion variable = L2 (English) reading ability.
$^*p < .05$.; $^{**}p < .01$.

Hypothesis # 2.

This hypothesis was designed to test the Threshold Hypothesis in the sample. For the present study, descriptive statistics and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between the English (L2) reading ability and Chinese (L1) reading ability in 6 different groups were first computed based on students' English language proficiency levels. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for the English and Chinese Reading Tests and Intercorrelations for 6 Levels of English Language Proficiency

		Test							
		EP		ER		CR			
EP level	n	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	r	p
1	30	18.30	2.58	7.57	2.11	8.35	1.70	.16	.39
2	30	24.33	1.54	9.77	2.33	10.47	2.39	.25	.18
3	30	28.77	1.30	10.53	2.27	11.10	2.77	.24	.19
4	30	33.50	1.63	10.80	2.12	11.30	2.55	.27	.15
5	31	38.97	1.89	11.77	1.87	12.06	1.77	.32	.08
6	31	46.35	2.81	14.55	1.73	13.77	1.33	.34	.05

Notes. EP = English (L2) language proficiency; ER = English reading; CR = Chinese (L1) reading. The r represents the Pearson correlation between English reading and Chinese reading.

Moreover, the results are displayed visually in Figure 1. Figure 1 roughly depicts a simple, continuous rising trend, indicating that the higher the students' English language proficiency levels, the higher the correlation coefficients between students' Chinese reading ability and English reading ability. The correlation coefficients between English and Chinese reading were low and not significant at the .05 level in 5 out of 6 English language proficiency levels. Moreover, the linear relationship between English reading and Chinese reading visually indicated that the transfer gradually increased with students' levels of English proficiency. On the basis of the correlational analyses, the language threshold exists between Level 5 and Level 6 in that the only significant correlation coefficient existed in Level 6.

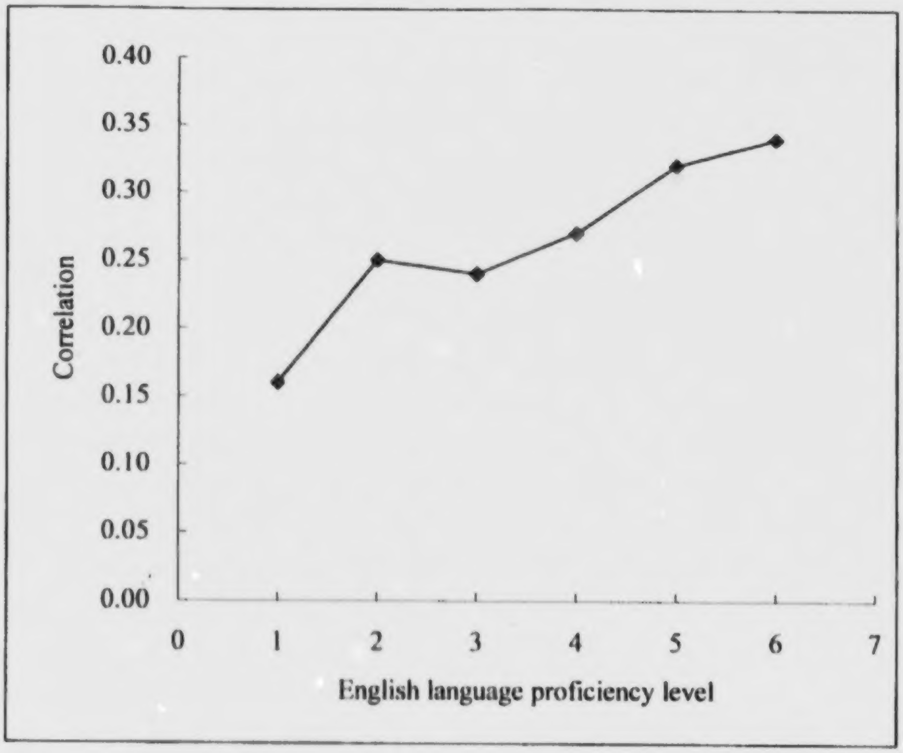


Figure 1
Intercorrelations of Chinese Reading and English Reading for 6 Levels of English Language Proficiency

In order to decide whether the correlation coefficients across the six language proficiency groups are a continuous rise, a Fisher's r-to-Z transformation was employed to test the hypothesis that the correlations in each adjacent pair of coefficients were drawn from the same population. The results led to a conclusion that there was no significant difference between each adjacent pair of coefficients, implying that the correlation coefficients between Chinese and English reading based on the English language proficiency levels in the present study were a continuity.

For the sake of triangulation, a second way of grouping was adopted to test whether a similar result could be obtained. Students were re-aggregated into three groups by dividing the range of students' English proficiency test scores into three groups (13-26; 27-40; 41-55). Students in Level One were regarded as relatively low achievers, and those in Level Three were relatively high achievers on the test.

Descriptive statistics and the correlation coefficients for the English reading and Chinese reading tests for the three levels are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the English and Chinese Reading Tests and the Intercorrelations for 3 Levels of English Language Proficiency

		Test							
		EP		ER		CR			
EP Level	n	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	r	p
1	50	20.36	3.29	8.32	2.27	9.16	1.98	.27	.063
2	54	29.11	2.25	10.35	2.22	11.35	2.84	.28	.042
3	78	41.05	5.08	12.83	2.34	12.65	1.92	.51	.000

Notes. EP = English (L2) language proficiency; ER = English reading; CR = Chinese (L1) reading. The r represents the Pearson correlation between English reading and Chinese reading.

The results are also depicted in Figure 2. The pattern of the graph in Figure 2 is similar to that in Figure 1 in that they represent a simple linear correlation between Chinese reading and English reading. In other words, the higher the students' English language proficiency levels, the higher the correlation coefficients between the two reading scores. The correlation coefficient in Level 1 was not significant (p =.063), and the correlation coefficients in Level 2 and Level 3 were both significant (p =.042 and .000, respectively). The results were consistent with those based on the six levels. The highest threshold level of language proficiency was significant, but the lowest threshold level of language proficiency was not significant.

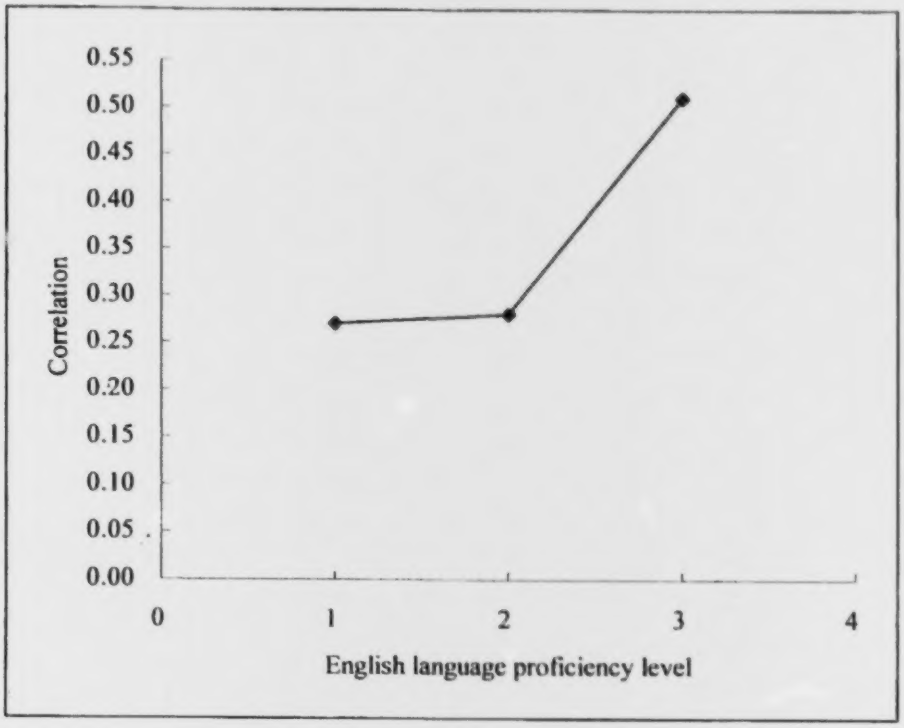


Figure 2

Intercorrelations of Chinese Reading and English Reading for 3 Levels of English Language Proficiency

A Fisher's r-to-Z transformation was once again employed to test the hypothesis that the correlations in each adjacent pair of coefficients were drawn from the same population. The results were consistent with those of the six groups, indicating that the correlational relationship between Chinese and English reading ability in the sample was a continuum, rather than a discontinuity. The results showed that students in the highest rather than the lowest proficiency level could considerably, and appropriately utilize their good reading habits and strategies when they were reading in English.

Causal Relationships among Variables

Besides assessing the correlational relationships between variables, a path analysis was conducted to further explore causal relationships among the proposed variables. The results of the two multiple regression analyses are presented Table 5.

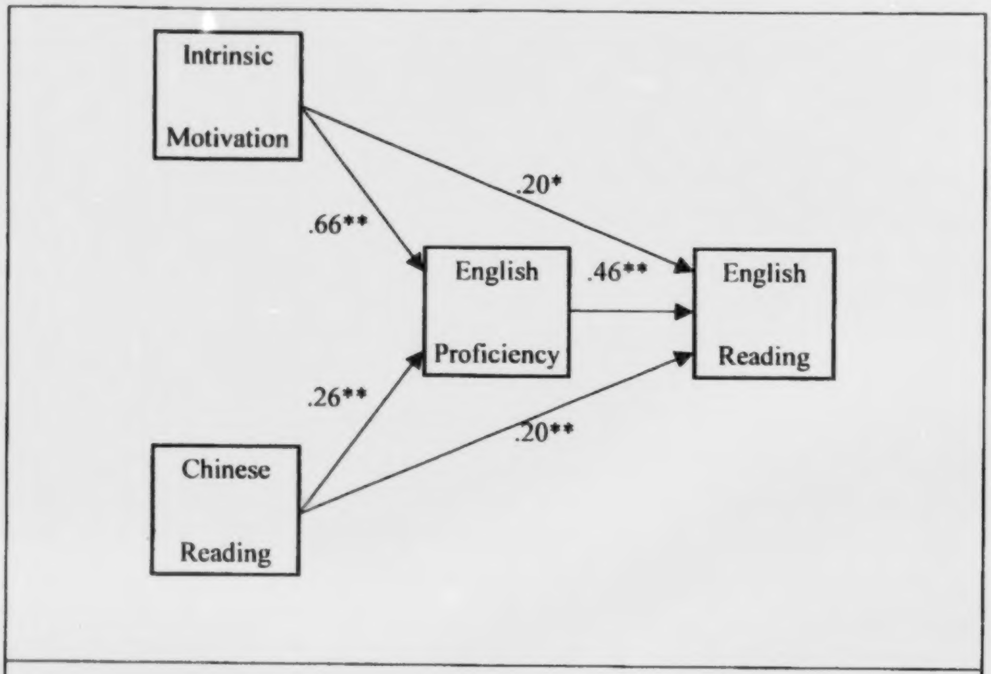
Table 5

Standardized Direct and Indirect Effects of Independent Variables on Dependent Variables

	Independent variables		
Dependent variable	IM	CR	EP
1. EP			
Direct	.66	.26	
Indirect	—	—	
2. ER			
Direct	.20	.20	.46
Indirect	.30	.12	—

Note. IM = intrinsic motivation; CR = Chinese reading; EP = English proficiency; ER = English reading.

In addition to Table, the results are also depicted in Figure 3.



Note. $^*p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

Figure 3. A Path Diagram Depicting the Causal Relationships with Standardized Coefficients among the 4 Variables.

The results of the path analysis in Table 5 and Figure 3 indicate that both intrinsic motivation and L1 (Chinese) reading ability had not only direct effects but also indirect effects on L2 (English) reading ability. The indirect effect (.30) of intrinsic motivation on English reading ability was higher than its direct effect (.20) By contrast, Chinese reading ability had a higher direct effect (.20) on English reading ability than its indirect effect (.12). It should be noted that intrinsic motivation in the present study had a high direct effect (.66) on English language proficiency. This finding supports the conclusion of earlier intervention studies (e.g., Goldberg & Cornell, 1998) that intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on school learning. In addition to directly causing English reading ability (direct effect = .46), English language proficiency acted as mediators between intrinsic motivation and English reading ability, and between Chinese reading ability and English reading ability.

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DISCUSSION

Hypothesis # 1

Results have confirmed the first hypothesis, that English language proficiency (vocabulary and grammar knowledge), Chinese reading ability, and intrinsic motivation each are correlated with, and contribute significant unique variance to, English reading ability. This finding strongly corroborated the line of research that L2 language proficiency and L1 reading ability are essential predictors of L2 reading ability. Overall, this finding implies that a complete English reading instruction program in Taiwan should improve students' English language proficiency, remind them of the positive transfer of their effective reading strategies in Chinese, and stimulate their intrinsic motivation for learning English.

More importantly, the results further supported Brisbois' (1995, p. 583) suggestion that predictor variables "should include affective factors", and Taillefer's (1996) suggestion that motivation is a factor that future research needs to take into serious consideration. However, about 43 % of variance of English reading ability was not accounted for by the three variables. Some possible factors will be proposed in the section below on suggestions for future research.

Hypotheses # 2.

Lee and Schallert (1997) provided evidence for the Threshold Hypothesis on the basis of correlational analyses. According to Cummins' (1981) Threshold Hypothesis, there is a level of proficiency below which L1 reading ability is not significantly related to L2 reading ability. The data from both Lee and Schallert (1997) and from the present study support this hypothesis.

According to Lee and Schallert (1997, p. 727), the word "threshold," however, can be taken as implying a "discontinuous relationship"—a degree of proficiency at which there is a dramatic change in the relationship between L1 and L2 reading ability. The data from the present study did not strongly support this picture. Rather, a continuous relationship between L1 and L2 reading could be found across the six levels or the three levels. The contribution of L1 reading ability to L2 reading ability may gradually increase as L2 proficiency increases.

Generally, the results confirmed the existence of a language threshold in the sample, and demonstrated that positive transfer of reading ability across languages should be a continuum. It is true that the higher the learner's language proficiency level is, the more and the more readily he or she can utilize good reading skills in second language reading. Such being the case, ESL instructors should teach reading comprehension skills as early as possible because positive transfer could occur even at a very low English language proficiency level if texts are interesting and compatible with students' proficiency levels.

Causal Relationships among 4 Variables.

The results of path analysis supplement the interpretation of the multiple relationships among the variables proposed in the present study. On the basis of the results of path analysis, intrinsic motivation for learning English had a strong direct effect on English proficiency, which, in turn, had a moderate direct effect on English reading ability. The indirect effect of intrinsic motivation on English reading ability was stronger than its direct effect on English reading ability. This finding could explain why intrinsic motivation in multiple regression analyses was highly correlated with English reading ability, but accounted for only 2% of unique variance of the criterion variable.

To put it differently, intrinsic motivation, though not contributing much directly to L2 reading ability in multiple regression analyses, was still a pivotal factor in English reading ability. In addition to directly causing English reading ability, intrinsic motivation indirectly influenced indirectly English reading ability via English language proficiency. Based on the findings, intrinsic motivation is indeed an important factor in improving a learner's English language competence and English reading ability.

Additionally, the results indicated that Chinese reading ability seems to cause English reading ability directly and indirectly as well. Like intrinsic motivation, Chinese reading ability was also proven to be an essential factor in influencing English reading ability. It should be noted that few former studies have found or reported the effect of L1 reading ability on L2 proficiency. It makes sense that good L1 readers have a better chance to become proficient in an L2 if they can employ effective reading skills (e.g., guessing meaning from the context) when learning the target language.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The line of research followed in this study needs to be continued and expanded upon in order to achieve a deeper understanding of the role of intrinsic motivation in L2 reading. Replications should include subjects with equal numbers of male and female students to explore whether gender makes any difference in the transfer of reading ability.

Because of the high percentage of unexplained variance, additional independent variables need to be employed to discover the unexplained variance of the criterion variable. These possible variables should include students' attitude toward L2 learning, students' conception of their own abilities, students' belief in the positive transfer of reading ability across languages, and culture-specific prior knowledge.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Some pedagogical implications for EFL instructors can be drawn from the review of literature and data analyses in the present study. These implications are especially helpful to those students with a language problem, with a reading problem, or without motivation for learning a second language.

If L2 learners have difficulty transferring their reading ability on account of a language problem, teachers should provide them with sufficient L2 vocabulary and grammar knowledge and help them attain the necessary threshold level as early as possible. If L2 learners have been found to be poor readers and L2 proficiency is not the chief cause, teachers need to probe into the possible effect of L1 reading and help students establish correct reading habits. In addition, linguistic knowledge is not the whole story. Stimulating students' intrinsic motivation to learn is necessary in any type of instruction, especially EFL teaching.

CONCLUSION

Having reviewed a number of empirical studies and plausible theories, and based on the results of the present study, I can reasonably propose a model of English reading ability in which English language proficiency, Chinese reading ability, and intrinsic motivation are the main factors contributing to English reading ability, each of these factors making a significant unique contribution. Moreover, a model of causal relationships among 4 variables, based on the results of path analysis, has been established. The predictor variable L2 language proficiency has a direct effect on L2 reading ability; both intrinsic motivation and L1 reading ability have not only direct effects but also indirect effects on L2 reading ability via L2 language proficiency. Models of the relationship that do not recognize these indirect effects underestimate the contribution of intrinsic motivation, and L1 reading, to L2 reading.

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預測第二外語閱讀能力—

再審視門檻假設理論並探視內在動機之貢獻

摘要

本研究之目的在探究預測學生第二外語閱讀能力之因素。此外，除試圖複製先前類似主題—「門檻假設理論」—的研究外，本研究也藉由增加「動機」因素，及「路徑分析」統計法來延伸前人之卓越研究成果。大致而言，本研究結果支持以往「門檻假設理論」相關研究的觀點，也就是說，本國語與第二外語之間閱讀能力的正面轉移的確存在，然而，轉移的多寡程度端賴第二外語的語言能力。本研究發現，英文語言能力、中文閱讀能力和內在學習動機是預測學生英文語閱讀能力之重要因素。三種因素相加可預測百分之五十七的變異數。進一步「路徑分析」統計法分析結果發現，三種因素皆直接影響第二外語之閱讀能力。此外，中文閱讀能力和內在學習動機也經由第二外語之語言能力而間接影響第二外語之閱讀能力。此發現指出，中文閱讀能力和內在學習動機對於增進英文語閱讀能力也扮演重要角色。最後本文也根據研究結果提出一些教學上的建議。

關鍵詞：「門檻假設理論」　轉移　「路徑分析」

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Why Peer Comments Fail

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Abstract

This study examines reasons why EFL writers fail to incorporate peer comments into their subsequent revisions. Through comparing and contrasting six EFL students' first and second drafts and their peers' comments as well as interviewing the students, the researcher identified two major reasons for students' failure to accept peer feedback: A strong sense of text ownership on the writers' part and vagueness of feedback on the reviewers' part. The researcher recommends using response groups to maintain a balance between writers' ownership of the text and sensitivity to audience needs, and suggests using a four-step (clarifying the writer's intention, identifying problems, explaining the nature of problems, and making suggestions) approach to coaching peer reviewers in generating more specific feedback.

Key Words: peer review, ESL/EFL writing, Taiwanese students, case study, Chinese

INTRODUCTION

The practice of peer review has been employed by most L1 English composition instructors for years. Many ESL/EFL composition teachers have also noticed this trend and have started to incorporate this technique into their classroom teaching (Mangelsdorf & Schlumberger, 1992; Tsui & Ng, 2000). Some of the extant empirical evidence lends support to this incorporation (Gere & Abbott, 1985; Gere & Stevens, 1985; Moll, 1989; Nystrand, 1986). Research on both L1 and ESL/EFL composition has reported beneficial effects of peer feedback in social, cognitive, and affective domains. In terms of the social domain, peer review encourages collaborative meaning construction within the context of social interaction. Moreover, peer feedback enhances writers' audience awareness, which, in turn, helps them guard against egotism during composing (Kroll & Vann, 1981). Writers thus can become more responsible and revise their "writer-based prose" to a more "reader-based" one (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Peer interaction also provides cognitive benefits to students because they constantly engage themselves in "exploratory talk" that fosters peer learning, and this type of learning is likely to take place in conventional teaching. Such talk not only helps students test out their original ideas but also prompts them to revise old hypotheses and finally to discover a brand-new perspective. The exploration and revision of ideas as well as discovery of new perspectives all are of great importance to second language acquisition and cognitive growth. In addition, students can gain more insight into writing and revision by critically reading each other's drafts, and their judgment of what makes writing successful sharpens through each reading. The other added advantage of peer review to students' knowledge increment lies in the register of peer feedback, which is more at the learners' level of development and thus more informative than teacher feedback. Finally, peer review can exert a positive influence on students' affective domain. Students' attitudes toward writing can be improved due to the assistance of more supportive peers. As a result, their "affective filter" can be lowered and their writing abilities improved.

Although a number of researchers have reported on the beneficial effects associated with peer review, other researchers have been more critical. Leki (1990) listed a variety of problems with peer review in ESL classrooms. Among them are students' overemphasis on correcting surface errors, neglect of more crucial issues like meaning, vagueness of comments (e.g., "be more specific"), lack of constructive criticism, and inability to judge the validity of peer comments. Nelson and Murphy (1993) accentuated the last problem in their study and attributed students' reluctance to accept peer comments to their cultural belief that only teachers are sources of knowledge. With a strong belief in authority figures, those students usually disregard peer comments. On a similar cultural note, Carson and Nelson (1994) argued that the constitution of L2 writing groups for individualistic purposes might run counter to the notion of collectivism presupposed by students from countries such as Japan and the PRC, thus disorienting such students. They further argued that the notion of ingroup membership of Japanese and Chinese students might render them more antagonistic during peer review toward others who did not belong to their cultural groups. However, this argument failed to find support in a later study (Carson & Nelson, 1996). In a survey of 56 L2 students' perceptions of peer comments, Lockhart and Ng (1993) found that students had doubts about their peers' capacity to serve as competent readers, although the students admitted that peer feedback rendered them more perceptive about audience needs and enhanced their compositions. Mendonca and Johnson (1994) investigated how verbal peer feedback shaped students' revision activities and found that most students used their own discretion to selectively incorporate the feedback into their subsequent drafts.

In contrast to studies addressing sociolinguistic and sociocultural issues during the process of peer review, fewer studies have focused on measuring the outcomes of peer review, that is, the number of revisions based on peer feedback. And findings of this line of research are discouraging to advocates of peer review. Although Nelson and Murphy (1993) found that the use of peer comments in their students' essays was more than half (an average of 3.2 on a scale of 1 to 5), remaining studies have shown a deplorably low ratio of revisions made according to peer feedback, ranging from 5% (Connor and Asenavage, 1994) to 22% (Chou, 1999) to less than 50% Tsui and Ng (2000) to 53 % (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994). If peer feedback is instrumental to raising audience awareness and needs and also facilitates L2 learning, why do the majority of peer comments fail to be incorporated into students' subsequent drafts? Does the problem lie with the reviewers because they are unable to make valuable comments? Or does the problem lie with the writers because they refuse to accept sound advice? Ferris (1997) found that teacher comments that are long and text-specific and require only marginal information and correction of grammatical mistakes generate the most substantive revision. Do peer comments share these attributes? The purpose of this classroom research was to seek answers to these questions by analyzing the unincorporated feedback and by interviewing writers. Drawing on the data collected during interviews, the researcher categorizes the reasons why peer comments fail to be incorporated and suggests possible approaches to improving the low ratio of incorporated peer feedback.

THE STUDY

The main research question was: Why do peer comments fail to be incorporated into students' subsequent drafts? The research methodology employed was a case study with text analysis. The subjects were six randomly selected EFL sophomore students in the researcher's composition class at a large university in the southern part of Taiwan. All of them were English majors with intermediate English proficiency and were introduced to the practice of peer review (written feedback in a dyad), along with 12 other classmates in the same class, at the beginning of the fall semester. The rationale of using written feedback was based on the assumption that it gives the reviewers more time to think about how to clearly phrase their comments. It would also help the writers because they could review the comments as many times as necessary while making revisions. The rationale of conducting peer review in a dyad was to maximize the use of class time so that each writer would receive comments from a reviewer during each peer review session.

During the course of the semester, the researcher modeled and demonstrated the review process and techniques and gave students guidelines and specific questions to focus on during each peer review session. The specific questions in the guidelines are based on the writing techniques session discussed in the textbook "Mosaic I" (Blass & Pike-Baky, 2002). For example, the section of writing techniques in the second chapter deals with the basic components of an academic paragraph: topic sentence, bridge (second sentence), examples, and restatement. Therefore, the core questions listed in the guidelines were revolved around these four points. The following instructions were the exact items consulted by students when they were reviewing their peers' drafts:

1. Read the first sentence. What is the topic? What is the controlling idea? Circle them. Is the topic sentence a statement of opinion, intent, a combination of both, or just simple fact? If it is a statement of fact, help the writer rewrite it so that it becomes a real topic sentence (i.e., a statement of opinion, intent, or a combination of both).
2. After reading the topic sentence, what do you expect to read in the following sentences?
3. Now read the following two or three sentences. Did the writer write according to your expectation(s)? If not, what did the writer write instead? Do you think that writer was sidetracked? Go back to the bridge (second sentence). Did the author choose a word that is not the controlling idea to develop? Did the author talk about an idea more general than or in contrast to the controlling idea? If none of these applies, reread the topic sentence to make sure that you understand the writer's intention.
4. Read the examples. How many examples are there? Are they well balanced (in terms of sentence length and depth of discussion)? Are they relevant to the controlling idea in the topic sentence? If not, explain to the writer why they are irrelevant. Also work with the writer to think of more things to talk about if the examples are too general or to delete some of the redundant sentences.
5. Read the last few sentences in the paragraph. Is there a restatement at the end of the paragraph? If not, work with the writer on a concluding sentence.
6. What did you learn from reading this paragraph, either in language use or content? Is there anything nice you want to say about this paragraph?
7. Are there any grammatical errors or inappropriate word usage?

As can be seen from the guideline sheet, the focus is more on global issues such as organization, coherence, and development of writers' compositions than local problems such as grammar or spelling. In addition to pointing out places that need revising and elaboration, the instructor also reminded reviewers to provide positive comments (question 6) so that the writers would not feel that their work was worthless. Halfway through the semester, all students became accustomed to this practice. While most were able to make comments according to the guidelines (a requirement of every reviewer), some even went further to make extra comments that were not addressed in the guidelines. An illustration of this was found in one reviewer's comments on a writer's topic sentence "we always make use of knowledge from the Humanities extensively in our daily life." She responded, "I expect that you will give more examples of explaining what you mean by using the humanity knowledge extensively. Humanity is a general concept containing many subjects such as history, psychology, Chinese, etc. You just pointed out one in the following sentences. I suggest that you give more examples to support your topic sentence or narrow down your topic sentence to one or two subjects." This reviewer did not only address the 2nd question in the guideline, but also pointed out the problem with the topic sentence and further suggested two options to the writer, leaving the final decision to the writer.

While conducting peer review, very few seemed to be threatened by the "face" issue noted in Min (1998). This might be due to their familiarity with one another and the instructor's endeavor to create a writing community in this class. As noted in the previous paragraph, the students were mostly sophomore English majors who had already spent one year studying together. As a result, the initial unease of studying in a new environment during the first year had gradually disappeared by the beginning of the second school year. In addition, the instructor endeavored to create a shared identity among the students. She constantly reminded the students that they were collaborating with one another in becoming better writers. They were not there only to learn from the instructor, but also to learn from their classmates. In order for this aim to be realized, each student had to help one another through written peer comments so that they could all progress in their writing abilities. With good rapport among most students and the guidelines in hand, they usually wrote their opinions without holding back.

The peer review was a part of a "writing cycle." The "writing cycle" was similar to that discussed in Tsui & Ng (2000) except that it was shorter in duration (4 weeks v.s. 6 weeks), with the addition of an oral presentation after the revision of the first draft. The whole cycle was sequenced as follows: brainstorming→outlining→ peer comments (optional) → revising outline→ writing first draft→ peer review→ revising the first draft→ **oral presentation** and **peer response**→ teacher-student conference on the second draft (oral and written comments)→ revising the second draft→ teacher's written comments on the third draft→ revising the third draft→ final draft. Unlike the peer review prior to the revision of the first draft, peer response was mainly oral questions or comments. The purpose of introducing peer response was to give presenters (writers) an opportunity to receive more comments from other classmates and to give the audience a chance to practice making immediate oral comments in English, a task more demanding than giving written feedback. During this year-long writing class, students were first required to compose paragraphs and essays about personal topics such as "My ____ and I" and "The causes of my good/poor health" in the first semester. During the second semester, they were required to search for information and quote it to substantiate their opinions in essays. Topics written during the second semester included "The advantages/disadvantages of cell phones" and "Factors contributing to X's success." Students were not given grades on individual essays during the semester but were graded on the final portfolio, which was composed of five dialog journal entries, multiple drafts based on peer and teacher responses, and their written feedback to peers.

PROCEDURES

This study employed two sources of data: students' first and second drafts and peer comments (on the first drafts) as well as post interviews with the students. Peer response after the oral presentation was not included because most students were not able to make oral comments immediately and thus very few opinions were voiced. Furthermore, the presenters were usually too nervous to jot down the very few oral comments after the presentation, and as a result were unable to address them in subsequent revisions. In terms of the written data, the students' first drafts (before peer review) of four essays ("My _____ and I," "The Causes of my Good/Poor Health," "Advantages (disadvantages) of Cell Phones," and "Factors Contributing to X's Success") and peer comments on the first drafts as well as second drafts (after peer review) were collected once they were submitted for the teacher's comments. The researcher then carefully read the peer feedback and compared the first and second drafts to locate comments that the writer failed to utilize. After identifying the comments that were not used, the researcher immediately conducted an interview with the writer to find out why he/she did not incorporate those comments into the second draft. The interview was conducted in the student's native language to ensure full expression of the interviewee's thoughts and the interview was audio taped. The audiotape was first transcribed in Chinese by a research assistant and then translated into English by the researcher. A bilingual colleague who teaches Chinese-English translation reviewed both the Chinese version and English translations and made suggestions, which were all incorporated into the final English version.

FINDINGS

Altogether there were 352 comments made on the 24 first drafts (4 drafts for each of the 6 students). Of the 352 comments made on the first drafts, only 134 (38%) were incorporated into students' second drafts. In other words, a total of 218 (62%) peer comments failed to be utilized in subsequent revision. Through constant comparing and contrasting of students' first and second drafts and probing into students' explanations, the researcher was able to identify four major reasons for students failing to accept their partners' advice, presented in accordance of their relative weight: vagueness of feedback (43%), strong ownership of the text (30%), major self-initiated revisions (21%), and lack of time (6%). These four majors reasons usually were intertwined with one another and could not be deemed to be the only reason for most of the instances discussed below. But for the sake of convenience and clarity, the researcher decided to discuss one major reason for each instance, acknowledging that the other reasons might also have a bearing on most of the examples.

VAGUENESS OF FEEDBACK

The first reason to emerge for students failing to incorporate peer comments into subsequent drafts was that feedback lacked concrete suggestions. This issue has also been observed in many EFL/ESL writing classrooms (Leki, 1990; Mangelsdorf, 1992; Tsui & Ng, 2000). The majority of the vague feedback only indicates the evaluator's uncertainty about a sentence or a word in compositions rather than his/her suggestion, thus making the writer wonder what to do about it. Most chose to ignore it. The following comment is a case in point.

Original text:	No matter affections between relatives, friends, couples, lovers, or leader and followers, Jin Yong expresses them in a forceful style.
Peer comment:	Maybe you can use a more appropriate term.

The author expressed confusion about "a more appropriate term" to his peer, who could not suggest another more suitable word. So the writer did not make any change. A talk with the reviewer revealed his uncertainty about the writer's usage of "forceful", although he understood the writer's intention to describe Jin Yong's writing style. The simple underline was meant to prompt the writer to generate a more satisfying word, but was considered to be a source of confusion by the writer.

In a similar vein, the peer reviewers in the following three excerpts again underlined words to express their doubts about word usage, but did not provide further suggestions. These reviewers, like the previous one, admitted understanding of the writer's intention but doubted if the Chinese way of expression was appropriate in an English composition. Therefore, they used underlines to show their doubt, uncertainty, and perhaps lack of revision strategy to prompt the writers to consult available sources to find a solution. However, without concrete feedback from their peers on more appropriate expressions to substitute for the ones in the compositions, the writers chose to stick to their original ideas and words.

Original text: If I have exams or significant activities, I'm always full of stress because I'm afraid of failing. If I have much stress, I will be in a bad mood and don't want to talk to others and have no appetite. These will have an effect on my mental and physical health.

Original text: From then on, I care my body carefully, and these ways do work.

Original text: I needed to go to bed very late for the exams in junior high school, and that greatly damaged my health. Now I go to bed at 10:40 p.m. and get up at 7:00 a.m., except some occasions needed.

Some might argue that the use of underlines might be attributed to a lack of common metalanguage while conducting peer review. This interpretation is less unlikely, given the instruction on writing skill during weekly classes and guidelines in doing peer review. A more likely interpretation is that these reviewers did not yet possess adequate linguistic competence. They felt something was wrong in a particular spot but could not explain it clearly to the writer. However, not all underlines represent the reviewers' inability to provide specific comments. Sometimes, the underlines represent the reviewer's indirect strategy of calling the writer's attention to the problematic area and avoidance of direct comment for fear of hurting the writer's feelings. As pointed out by one transfer student in his journal entry, "I remember once I did the peer-reviewing with one of my classmates. I gave so many opinions that that he felt uncomfortable and kind of humiliated.... Although it didn't show remarkably on his face, I could sense it. I have no idea how to cope [with] this sort of thing. Gradually I am trying to not to be opinionated or I will be regarded as a conceited freak." The result of trying to avoid humiliating the writer was to prompt the writer to ponder the meaning of the underlined words. However, not too many writers could detect the underlying meanings of the underlies or spent much time discussing the underlined words with him, and hence no revisions were made.

OWNERSHIP OF THE TEXT

The second reason for why peer comments failed was writers' strong sense of ownership of their compositions. Although peer feedback can enhance awareness of audience needs, the final say on whether such needs will be addressed in writers' compositions still hinges on the author. If the author disagrees with the reviewer's opinion, even though the feedback is sound, a strong sense of ownership will sometimes prevent students from adopting it. The following excerpt, which is the introduction to a composition on the topic of "The Disadvantages of Cell Phones," is a good example.

Original text:	Modern communication is more and more convenient and improved. Many people can communicate with others far away by advanced communication. Cell phone is one of the communicative tools that people often use. Indeed, cell phone is convenient, people can carry it wherever they go. It is not limited to talk with each other in the rooms or the telephone booth any more. In addition, a new cell phone can have many function, it is not only used for talking. With more and more types of cell phone are produced, the prices of them are cheaper and cheaper, even many students also have one. In spite of all the conveniences in the use of cell phone, there are several disadvantages of cell phone can't be neglected.
Peer comments:	The first paragraph you made me think that you want to write the advantages of cell phone, but not disadvantages. You changed the direction suddenly in the last sentence, which seems a little strange. The transition should be more smoothly.

Despite the sound advice, the writer did not trim down the positive effects of cell phones and still kept the whole introduction in his second draft. When asked why he did not follow his peer's suggestion, the writer said, "I want to give readers a balanced view of cell phones in the introduction because cell phones have some advantages, not just disadvantages. So I spent some time talking about the benefits cell phones bring us. But in the thesis statement I switched to discussing the disadvantages. I think the transition is fine. So I didn't make any changes." Although the author's intention was well explained and understood, his treatment of the introduction tends to disorient the audience, as pointed out by his peer. In fact, it was not until the student heard the same comment from the researcher that he was willing to condense the advantages in fewer sentences and to add main ideas (i.e., potential negative effects) to the thesis statement. Some might construe the writer's willingness to revise as a gesture of deference to authority. However, the fact that two commentators (the student reviewer and the researcher) identified the same problem also convinced the writer of the necessity to revise his introduction.

The next instance is another illustration of the overriding power of writers' ownership of the text over sound peer feedback. This writer wrote three disadvantages of cell phones—causing damage to the brain, endangering drivers' and pedestrians' lives and disturbing people.

Original text:	Cell phone cause problems in many ways. First of all, according to John A. Pica, an attorney at Angeles's law firm, he says that "if these companies knew about the dangers of cell phone radiation, they should be punished dearly." Based on the correlated reports, using cell phone constantly will make the brain diseased. People may even die because the radiation. In addition, some people use cell phone when

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they are driving. But this is very dangerous because people can't do two things at the same time. Many car accidents happened result from this reason. A third disadvantage of cell phone is that it disturbs people sometimes. For example, cell phone is not appropriate to use in the classroom, or in the movie theater, and in someone's speech. Without turning cell phone off, it may make a lot of noises and interrupt others.

Peer comments: In this essay, the first and second disadvantages you wrote are equally important, but the third disadvantage seems weaker than others. Maybe you can rewrite the last point to make it stronger and more persuasive.

The peer's comment might sound "vague" to some writers in that it only pointed out the general principle ("make it stronger") but lack specific details "how." However, it did point out the major weakness of this composition. Like the previous writer, this writer did not incorporate this advice into her second draft. She explained during the interview: "I think disturbing people's lives is equally important as endangering self's and others' safety because people have the right to demand a quiet environment when watching movies and listening to lectures. So I did not make any change in the second draft." The author was convincing in her reply to the researcher's inquiry; however, she did not accentuate the third point in her composition as forcefully as she sounded in the interview, thus weakening the value of that point. To some extent, the way to arrange main ideas is a subjective decision. But writers should take into account the readers' response to their arrangement and somehow address readers' concern. The author of the previous text did not seem to want to relinquish her control over the text, hence missing a great opportunity to better her composition.

The last example of ignoring sound advice from peers due to differences in opinion appeared in another student's conclusion. Throughout the essay, this student discussed the negative effects of cell phones. But in her conclusion, she changed her focus.

Original text: Cell phones make trouble to your health, safety and daily life. But I still believe that as technology progressed, cell phones could be designed better than today. And if we use cell phones by correct concepts and methods, I believe that cell phone will be popular for everyone and everywhere.

Peer comments: You have a positive attitude toward cell phones in the conclusion. If you can give some useful suggestions related to the disadvantages you have mentioned, I think it would be better.

This student explained why she did not take her peer's advice: "I think I've already talked about the shortcomings of cell phones in previous paragraphs. But I foresee an optimistic outlook for cell phones because of their popularity with young adults. So I wrote the foreseeable future in the conclusion." This paradoxical explanation is illlogical and also lacks a full understanding of the function of a conclusion in an academic essay, which requires the writer to remind readers of major points discussed previously and does not allow for new information. Nevertheless, when writers' sense of ownership of text clashes with peer suggestions, more often than not the former overrules the latter. The consequences of such refusal can be a disorienting introduction, weak argument (or poor organization) or an irrelevant conclusion.

Ignorance of wrong advice is not surprising, given the overriding power of the writers' strong sense of ownership of their texts. There were other instances in which the reviewer misunderstood the writer's meaning. As a result, their comments were not utilized. The following is one of the examples.

Original text: .Similarly, as a daughter, I did my duty so well that I seldom disobeyed my father's orders, which kept me from understanding him more, because I always did what he wished without asking…

Peer comments: What kinds of orders? There is a contradiction because you said you disobeyed your father's orders in the previous sentence and then said you always did what he wanted you to do…

A closer look at the sentences in the excerpt reveals that the reviewer missed reading the key word "seldom", thus misunderstanding the author and making an inappropriate comment. Such a comment, without doubt, leads to the original writer's refusal of acceptance.

MAJOR SELF-INITIATED REVISIONS

The third major reason for why writers failed to revise drafts in light of their peers' comments is due to major self-initiated revisions in the second draft. Sometimes the authors abandoned an old idea, and added or deleted text. As a result, comments made regarding the discarded idea became useless and thus were not incorporated into subsequent drafts.

Original text: Although Father is a responsible parent, our relationship was not very close until recent years. In the past, owing to his work and for lack of active interaction, we didn't understand each other very well. As I have mentioned, my father had tried to spare time to get together with us but it was not enough to get to be familiar with us. In addition, passive contacts made the situation worse. For instance, when I had any problem, I used to consult my mother first or when I wanted to declare something, I would inform my mother only.

Peer comments: What do you mean when you said you wanted to declare something? Do you mean that you wanted to say something?

Second draft: In my memory, although Father was responsible parent, he used to be serious. **When I was young, he always managed to spare some time to take us children around the neighborhood. He would also pay attention to our behavior and schoolwork**. But, the effort to try to get together with us is not enough. In addition, the passive interaction between us made the situation worse. **Because he had to set a perfect example to me, Father seldom played jokes with us. Because he was so stern, I dared not talk to him actively. As a result it was always difficult for both of us to get to know each other's personality, interests and thoughts.**

Even a cursory look can easily spot a major revision (sentences in bold face) in the second draft, which showed little resemblance to the original text. The peer's question was not addressed because the author had abandoned the part that triggered the comment. Some might argue that the author's discarding the old idea might be an indirect revision triggered by her peer's comments. Nevertheless, the commentator's intention was to ask for further explanation rather than challenge the validity of content. In other words, the eradication of the last idea was more of a self-initiated act, whereby peer comments were rendered useless.

The next example illustrates another major self-initiated revision that ignored peer comments.

Original text: Health plays an important role on human's life. Everyone desires for good health, and I have no exception. However, since I was young, I have not been a healthy child. Now, the condition is still the same. I think the irregular diet habit, the less exercise and the high-strung sentiment are the three main causes on my bad health.

Peer comments: When you're talking about "I have not exception", it should be I "am" no exception.

Second draft: Health plays an important part in our daily lives. **As soon as we lose our health someday, it seems that we give up the right of owning bliss; because we couldn't do anything we want to do or eat something we like, if we are sick. With the increasing age and decreasing energy, we should take more care about our condition of health such as taking exercise, eating organic or natural food, appropriate work (sic) and rests**. But since I was young, I got sick easily and till now; the situation is still the same. **Besides of the congenitally individual**

difference, my life style—eat diets irregularly, take exercise rarely and get a tendency to nervousness easily are the main reasons for my bad health.

As shown in bold face, this writer made many revisions in her second draft, yet none reflected the impact of peer comments. The only comment made by her peer (I am no exception) was not adopted because the author deleted the whole sentence. It demonstrates that a writer will discard an inappropriate idea even when such a decision makes otherwise valuable peer feedback obsolete. To some extent, self-initiated revisions reflect ownership of texts, which often overrides peer comments.

LACK OF TIME

The last reason for why writers failed to incorporate peer feedback was the time issue. Although the researcher usually gave the students three or four days to revise their first drafts after peer review, more often than not, students delayed revising the drafts until the night before the deadline. Consequently, they could only make minor revisions according to the peer feedback and usually had no time for major revisions, even when they considered the comment to be a valuable one. The next excerpt is exemplary of the limited time effect, according to the writer. The author talked about the reasons contributing to the success of a Chinese novelist who wrote stories about martial arts. He devoted two paragraphs to writing the same cause—his rich knowledge and life experience.

Original text: When we read Louis Cha's novels, it is surprising to find that he is good at so many things, including medicine, encirclement chess, poem, music, and Kung-fu. Unless he is an erudite person, he can't describe these kinds of knowledge in details. In addition, master Jin makes us read his works not only for fun but speculate at the same time by presenting some opinions about philosophy. Buddhists, and concept of value. But the most different and valuable parts of Louis's novels are the accounts of affections. No matter affections between relatives, friends, couples, lovers, or leader and followers, Jin Yong expresses them in a forceful style. Readers are easily moved by the plot. Louis Cha was born in a literary family, he read his first emprisen novel at eight years old. After that, he read all kinds of books generally, but emprisen novels are still his favorite. Then almost all emprisen novels in that time he had read over. During his teenage-years, Chinese fought against Japanese, so he had often changed schools in such a bad environment. In the process of transferring to other schools, Louis got more and more knowledge. In addition, he was engaged to be a reporter for a long time, so he went to many places and expanded thoughts and life experiences. Master

Jin can write about so many topics just because he knows so much.

Peer comments: Your second and third paragraphs seem to discuss the same subject matter—his rich knowledge about different subjects, and the time order seems a little strange. You can try to combine some of the two paragraphs to explain why Master Jin Yong has so rich knowledge about a lot of subjects.

The comment on reorganizing information in the previous excerpt is pertinent due to redundant repetition (knowledge about diverse subjects due to family background and life experience). However, the writer did not revise according to this suggestion. His response to my question was "I tried to follow my partner's suggestion. But it took a lot of time to reorganize these two paragraphs, and I didn't finish revising, so I just kept the old one." It might be that this author really thought about reorganizing paragraphs in line with his peer's suggestion. But a time-consuming and challenging task like this might render some students hesitant about taking action. But on the other hand, this excuse might be a disguise for his tardiness. Surprisingly, tardiness did not seem to be an uncommon phenomenon among the students. In the next excerpt, the author supplied a similar reason of inadequate time to make all the changes, even in the introduction.

Original text: Before entering college, I was very weak and frail and always fell ill. It made me feel painful because I couldn't do what I wanted to do by my own will. So, since I entered college, I have decided to change my bad health condition. Two years later, I'm healthier on account of my healthy lifestyle: Having a healthy diet, a regular life schedule and a positive mental attitude.

Peer comments: You may have to list some examples to show that you're healthy.

Despite the writer's agreement with this suggestion, she failed to incorporate it into her second draft because "I usually made easier changes (e.g., spelling, grammar, and vocabulary) first, and then attend to more lengthy ones (e.g., adding examples, reorganizing content) because they take more time to revise. Sometimes time is just not enough for me to make all the changes."

DISCUSSION

Through a close comparison and contrast of students' first and second drafts, peer comments, and post interviews, the researcher was able to identify four themes as the main reasons for student-writers' failure to incorporate peer feedback into their later drafts—inexactness of comments, strong sense of ownership of the text, major self-initiated revisions, and time issue. The first reason is not uncommon; it has been repeatedly observed in many studies as one of the major complaints about peer feedback (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994; Silva, 1990; Tsui & Ng, 2000). However, the reasons behind vague feedback ranged from incomprehension of the writer's intention to a deliberate avoidance strategy for fear of hurting the writer's feelings. The second and third reasons suggest a strong sense of ownership of texts among this group of EFL writers, who tended to defend their own reasons in spite of being offered sound advice, and who tended to discard inappropriate ideas, along with some valuable peer feedback. Such a strong sense of ownership of text has both merits and weaknesses. Tsui & Ng (2000) argued that the long-term effect of writers' ownership of their texts is students' autonomy and confidence in themselves as writers. However, such autonomy can sometimes render writers unresponsive to audience needs and valuable suggestions, thus making their texts "writer-based" rather than "reader-based." And this tendency is in direct contrast to the basic philosophy in western written communication that the writer should be responsible for alleviating readers' doubts about their intentions. What should EFL writing teachers do about these problems? How can EFL writing instructors help students produce more exact feedback? How can they foster students' sense of ownership of texts and reader awareness at the same time?

To assist students in generating more specific and elaborated feedback, the instructor needs to teach reviewers to follow a four-step procedure—clarify the writer's intention, identify the problem, explain the nature of the problem, and then make a suggestion. Given that some of the reviewers misunderstood the writer's intention, they made suggestions that changed the writer's original ideas and thus the comments were rejected. Therefore, the first important job for reviewers is to ascertain their full understanding of the writer's intentions. The instructor needs to constantly remind reviewers to not only make sure they understand the writer's intention and describe the problems they see in expressing such intentions, but also explain why they consider them to be problematic and suggest ways to remedy them. Circulating examples of good peer feedback in class and analyzing what is being lacked in vague student feedback can also help familiarize reviewers with the necessary steps in making valuable comments. In addition, the instructor needs to require that reviewers go over the written comments with the writers to ensure full understanding. On the other hand, writers are also required to seek clarification so that reviewers know how to make their feedback more "audience-friendly".

With regard to the tug-of-war between addressing audience needs and claiming ownership of the text, the answer lies in the configuration of peer review groups. In order to help maintain a balance between writers' autonomy and sensitivity to audience needs, peer groups might be a better choice than peer dyads (Mangelsdorf, 1992). In a peer dyad, there is only one reviewer. If the reviewer's opinions conflict with the writer's, the writer must either follow the suggestions of the reviewer or take the risk of making an unnecessary change, or ignore the reviewer's comments at the expense of sound advice. The end result of either situation is usually an unimpressive composition. A peer group, on the other hand, has more than one reviewer. If different reviewers express reservations about the same problem, the writer then knows that there must be something wrong and that he/she needs to revise the problematic spot to address audience needs. And lacking time is not a legitimate excuse anymore because they need to deal with the more serious problem first. If the reviewers have different opinions about different issues, the writer might exercise more discretion to determine whether those opinions will be incorporated during revision. Assigning students into peer groups can also help eliminate vague feedback—no matter if it stems from inability to make elaborated comments or deliberate avoidance of hurting writers' feelings. Reviewers in the same group can collaborate with one another on what comments to give and how to express them in a clear and non-intimidating manner. As a result, reviewers, when working together to negotiate ideas with each other, can usually give more accurate and developed comments (Mangelsdorf, 1992), which can generate the most substantive revisions (Ferris, 1997).

In contrast to Cault's (1994) finding that student comments "rarely contained suggestions for the whole piece of writing" (p. 184), this study reveals a somewhat different picture. Some reviewers were able to make valuable comments on the macro-level of text organization, as demonstrated in previous examples, albeit the number was limited. This shows that with proper training and a sufficient amount of time, students gradually gain more confidence in providing feedback on the overall organization of their partners' compositions. This shift in focus from linguistic accuracy to content appropriateness and clarity in organization is what composition teachers desire, because peer review will no longer a boring task of checking grammar but an interesting one involving negotiating meaning and collaborating with partners to clarify and voice their thinking. This meaning negotiation, concept clarification, and opinion expression can not only help writers become aware of their problems but also assist reviewers in becoming aware of weaknesses in their own writing (Tsui & Ng, 2000).

CONCLUSION

As with other studies, this study has some limitations. First, the small sample size does not allow generalizations to other writers (e.g., non-English majors) in other contexts (e.g., first year unfamiliar context); research with a larger number of subjects from heterogeneous backgrounds is necessary to confirm the findings. Second, only intermediate EFL writers were involved in the peer reviews, and the findings cannot be generalized to EFL writers at other proficiency levels. Further research might examine how different groupings of peer reviews, peer review dyads or peer review groups, affect the writers' decisions on incorporating comments into their revisions.

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同儕評論失敗理由之探討

摘要

本研究旨在探討外語寫作者為何不採納同儕意見。經由反覆不斷的比較六位外文系大二學生的初稿、同儕針對渠等初稿所給予的意見、六位學生依據同儕意見所修正的再稿、及研究者與渠等訪談的結果發現，這六位學生未採納部分同儕意見的主要原因有二：一為作者對其文章具有主控權，即使遇到可行之建議，亦因作者主觀判定影響，而未採納；二為部分同儕意見太過含糊籠統，因此作者不知如何修改。據此研究者建議，同儕討論以三人小組形式進行較佳。若有兩位評論者同時對文章某部分提出建議，作者應採納此建議並做適當修正，如此可避免作者只因一人意見就修改自己文章，而喪失對文章的主導權，或因自己主觀認定而認為個人意見不足可取，以致忽略讀者的意見。最後研究者並提出四項步驟，協助教師指導同儕評論者如何提出具體可行之意見。評論者須先釐清作者原意，以免因誤解而提出不可行之意見；再指出問題所在；並根據作者上下文意解釋為何會有此問題產生；最後再根據此一問題，建議可行之修改方法並舉例說明。如此詳盡的同儕評論才較具有說服力及參考價值，亦較能被作者採用。

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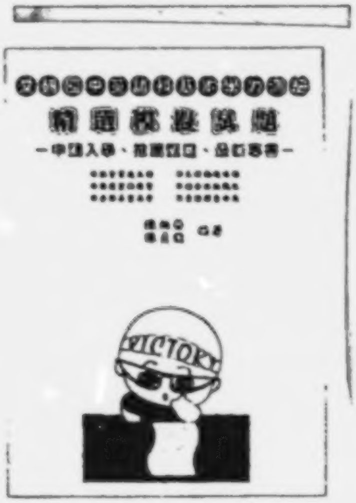

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英語的音節結構：理論與教學

王備五

國立高雄師範大學

摘要

本文簡要介紹英語音韻學裡有關「音節」研究上的部分新進理論，說明英語音節的內部結構。並舉例證明音節為語音現象的重要單位，許多音韻現象只能在音節內發生。目的在於幫助英語學習者，更進一步瞭解英語的部份音韻現象。希能藉由提供相關理論背景，作為英語教學者工作上的參考。

關鍵詞: 英語音韻學 音節 音節性子音 音節劃分 語音響度

壹、前言

近廿年來，音韻學理論研究上最重大的發展，就是由杭士基與哈利（Chomsky & Halle 1968）的線性理論，快速轉換為非線性的多層次理論。這種新分析的研究重點之一即為「音節」的各種現象。對於英語的音節研究，更是百家爭鳴，成果輝煌。本文將簡要介紹英語音節的部分理論，目的在於幫助英語學習者，更進一步瞭解英語的一些音韻現象，並提供相關理論背景，作為英語教學上的參考。文章包含下列六個部分：(I) 拼音成節、(II) 構字限制、(III) 音節性子音、(IV) 子音刪除、(V) 音節劃分、(VI) 理論與教學的互動。

貳、拼音成節 Syllable Formation

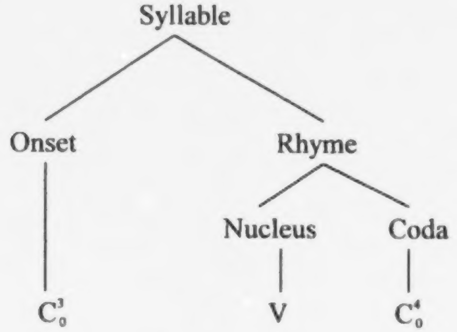
國內兒童英語的發音教學上，大致均從單音開始，然後進入音節合成。在拼音成節的作法上，有兩派教法。例如，在練習 pen / pɛn /一字的各音結合時，部分老師採用類似國語字音教學由上往下、依序結合的傳統方法，由左到右逐步結合。也有些老師採用以母音為基準，先結合母音及其後子音，再加上母音前子音的作法，其步驟分別如下：

(1) 方法一：先唸/ p /，再結合/ ɛ /成/ pɛ /，最後加上/ n /，終成/ pɛn /。
(2) 方法二：先唸/ ɛ /，再結合/ n /成/ ɛn /，最後加上/ p /，終成/ pɛn /。

據作者所知，此兩派爭議相持不下。據聞某全國連鎖兒英教育機構，曾經在全省性教學研討會上討論此一問題，但是兩派各持己見，未有結論。因此，各大兒英教學機構，在其發音教材及教師手冊上，對此問題，均不加以規範，任由教師各自為政[1]。

若試由音節的理論角度來看，或許能為此問題提供一些建議和參考。英語音節的內部構造，學者一般認定如下：

(3) 英語音節內部結構:



音節的核心為母音，必不可少。母音前的音(群)稱為 onset，其數量可以從 0 到 3。母音後的音(群)稱為 coda，其數量可由 0 到 4 之多。而子音群的組合搭配，在 onset 及 coda 中均各有限制，見以下章節。

由上列音節結構圖可見，母音及 coda 關係比較密切，並可自成一單位，稱為押韻。Onset 則與押韻關係遙遠。傳統上謂之「onset 不入韻」。反映出英語的押韻，只包含母音及 coda 二者的合成部分。此一押韻方式，並不限於英文。中文詩詞的押韻方式亦完全相同，請看：

(4) 英詩，Onset 不入韻 (Andrew Marvell： *To His Coy Mistress* 前四行)

Had we but World enough, and Time,
This coyness Lady were no crime.
We would sit down, and think which way
To walk, and pass our long Loves Day.

---

[1] 國內一些 Phonics 教材，對拼音成節的步驟，也有不同的看法。如依筱雯(1997:60) 採用先結合母音及後子音，再加掛前子音的方法。而謝欽舜(1997:23)則列出兩種方法，認為教 box 一字時，應由左向右逐步合成音節，但在教 bell，sing，ham，pen 等單字時，卻採用先結合母音及後子音，再加掛前子音的方法。

(5) 唐詩，聲母、介音不入韻（李白：夜思）

床前明月光
疑是地上霜
舉頭望明月
低頭思故鄉

由押韻的結構來看，似乎支持第二種拼音成節的結合法，也就是先結合母音及coda成一緊密單位，此一押韻單位再加掛onset，成為整個音節。

另外，從英語音節的開放或封閉現象來看，第一種結合方式也有理論上的缺點。所謂開放音節，是以母音結尾的音節，如pay、he、do、cow等。在英語中，開放音節，尤其是單音節單字，的結尾母音，必須是長母音或雙母音。而封閉音節則是以子音結尾的音節，如pen、dog、school、chair等。短母音通常只能出現在封閉音節。

所以，採用第一種拼音成節的方式時，/ p /和/ ε /先拼成/ pε /，在帶領小朋友唸讀的過程中，似有誤導/ pε /是英語中的合法音節之嫌。事實上，因為/ ε /是短母音，因此/ pε /是英語中不允許的獨立音節結構。相對的，在第二種拼音成節的方法中，則無此誤導可能。

因此，從音節的內部構造及音節的開放或封閉限制來看，第二種的拼音成節的方法，比較符合理論上的規範。

參、構字限制 Phonotactics

如前所述，母音前的onset有四種可能:無子音、單子音、雙子音、或三子音。其中單一子音的出現非常自由，除了/ ʒ /及/ ŋ /外，均可出現。而三子音群的搭配則有非常刻板的限制：如第一子音必定是/ s /，第二子音必須是/ p /，/ t /，或/ k /，而第三子音也僅限/ l /，/ r /，/ j /，/ w /其中之一。如 spring, street, scream, sclerosis, square 等單字。

比較有變化的則是雙子音群的搭配限制。首先看看下列單字，其字首雙子音群（C_1C_2）的排列如下：

(6) 部份字首雙子音群

/ pl- /：play
/ pr- /：pray
/ fl- /：fly
/ fr- /：fry
/ kl- /：clean
/ kr- /：cream
/sn-/ : snow
/θr-/ : three

有趣的是，一旦我們顛倒C_1C_2的順序，其新組合（C_2C_1）均不為英語接受。

(7) 違規的字首子音群

*/ lp- /
*/ rp- /
*/ lf- /
*/ rf- /
*/ lk- /
*/ rk- /
*/ns-/
*/rθ-/

可是這些字首不允許的 C_2C_1 組合，卻又見容於句尾。

(8) 字尾雙子音群

/ -lp / : help　/ -lf / : half　/ -lk / : milk　/-ns/ : ounce
/ -rp / : carp　/ -rf / : scarf　/ -rk / : park　/-rθ/ : earth

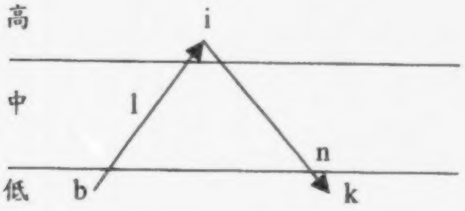
由上述現象看來，英語的字首雙子音群 C_1C_2 有三個分佈特性：(1) 在字首不可倒序為 C_2C_1 (2) 不見容於字尾 (3) 倒序後的 C_2C_1 卻可出現於字尾。這種奇特的現象，從音節理論上看，則有淺顯易懂的規則可循。

首先介紹「語音響度」。音韻學者均一致認定，各個單音都有其不同的響度 (sonority)，而不同的響度就決定了音節內，各個單音配置的限制。不過，音韻學者對於響度的分級方式，卻有不同的意見。例如音韻學家 Selkirk (1984:112) 分響度為 10 級，而語音學大師 Ladefoged (1993:246) 則有高達 16 級的響度區分。為了解釋方便，本文僅將響度大略分為三級：

(9) 語音響度三級分類
A.高響度：(雙/半)母音
B.中響度：流音/ l, r /、鼻音/ m, n, ŋ /
C.低響度：其他子音

母音因為響度最高，成為音節的響度頂點。從此點，響度向兩側逐級遞減，形成類似山丘的側影。以 blink 一字為例，其響度外廓為：

(10) 響度外廓：以 blink 為例[2]



簡單的規律就是：從左到右，母音前子音群響度必須向母音挺升，母音後子音群響度則須從母音往下降。利用這個規則就可以清楚了解為什麼上述例(6)中的子音群，可出現在字首（因 onset 響度上升），而例(7)中的子音群卻不可（因 onset 響度下降）。同理，例(8)中的子音群也符合母音後 coda 響度下降的要求。表面看來奇特的子音群配置限制，成了有規律的語音現象。

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[2] /l/與/n/雖同為中響度子音，但是由圖形上看，/l/的位置高於/n/。原因在於一般學者認定，同為中響度的流音（liquids），響度略高於鼻音(nasals)。

當然，在英語中，響度要求並非主導英語構字限制的唯一原則。例如/ s /的分佈即非常自由，幾乎不受響度限制。又如字首的/ tl- /、/ tr- /俱符合響度上升的要求，可是英語卻只有/ tr- /字首，而無/ tl- /字首，而倒序後的/ -lt /及/-rt /卻又都可出現於字尾，如 halt 和 cart。在音韻學上，英語的構字限制，至今仍是一個未能全部解決的難題。

響度除了能大體上掌握構字限制外，也提供了其他語音變化的基礎。以下兩節就是響度導致的語音變化。

肆、音節性子音 Syllabic Consonants

對於「音節性子音」的認定，音韻學家也常有不同的意見和解釋。有些學者，如 Prator & Robinett (1985)認為英語的音節性子音僅有少量幾個，並規定只有在特定環境下，才能產生音節性子音。他們的公式是：

(11) 音節性子音出現環境，Prator and Robinett (1985:117)

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}/t/\\ /d/\\ /n/\end{array}\right\} + \text{unstressed syllable containing} \left\{\begin{array}{l}/l/\\ \\ /n/\end{array}\right. > \text{syllabic consonant.}$$

由其公式看來，他們認定只有/l/ 和 /n/ 可成為音節性子音，而且必須配合兩個條件：(1) /l/ 或 /n/ 必須緊隨相同發音部位(上牙齦後)的/t/, /d/, 或/n/之一，(2)只能出現在輕音節。

其他學者則採比較寬鬆的方式來界定音節性子音，如 Hammond（1999）以為，凡在同一 coda 內，低響度的子音出現在中響度的子音前時，中響度的子音，就會成為音節性子音。以 little 及 struggle 兩字為例，Hammond 認為兩字的尾音都是音節性子音。而 Prator & Robinett 則只接受 little 一字的尾音是音節性子音，因為/t/與/l/發音部位相同。至於 struggle 的/g/與/l/則因發音部位不同，而在字尾的/ gl /子音群中加入了一個弱母音 schwa / ə /，成為一個新音節/ gəl /。

此外，由 prism 一字(以及所有字尾是-ism 的「主義」單字)，更可突顯兩派的差異。Prator & Robinett 以為：/z/ 和 /m/ 發音部位並不相同，所以產生母音插入：全字標記為/prɪ.zəm/。Hammond 則接受/m/ 可為音節性子音：全字標記為/prɪ zm̩/。因為/zm/在同一 coda，且順序為由低響度子音/z/，上升到中響度子音/m/。

不論認定音節性子音的條件是嚴格或是寬鬆，產生音節性子音的共同條件是：響度上升的 coda。由上節敘述，我們知道 coda 的響度必須下降，所以不論字尾是/ -tl/, /-gl/, 或/-zm/，都是由低到中的上升響度。一旦發生 coda 響度上升時，英語至少有三種方法來補救響度違規，他們是：

(12) 補救 Coda 響度違規的三種音變

A. 將中響度子音，提升為音節性子音，因此形成了多出的新音節。

B. 在違規的子音群中間加入 schwa /ə/，另成一新音節。

C. 刪除低響度的子音（見下一節）。

所以，兩派學者對上述(12A)與(12B)的歧異，僅在於增強音節的手段：是增強中響度子音成為新音節核心(12A)，還是另外插入一個新母音(12B)。同樣都是為了搶救違規 coda，而產生的音變。

國人學習英語第一次碰到音節性子音時，最令人好奇的就是音節性子音的特殊符號，如 /l̩/ 和 /n̩/。然後就會懷疑音節性子音到底如何發音。老師在解釋音節性子音時，大概是傾向採 Prator & Robinett 的嚴格認定，強調「同發音部位」，是產生音節性子音的必要條件。除了列出單字為例之外，也多以帶讀的方法，來示範音節性子音的發音。對於音節性子音的起因和音節的響度要求，通常未予以多加說明。

從認知的層面來看，音節性子音並非獨立現象，其成因亦屬音節內的響度要求。作者以為，整體、全面的知識或將更有助於對英語音韻變化的通盤瞭解。至於理論與教學的互動關係，將於文末再行討論。

另外值得一提的是 Pennington（1996:60）對音節性子音的看法，她認為音節性子音和加入新母音的差別主要來自發音的速度。速度快時產生音節性子音，速度慢時產生 schwa /ə/插入，頗值得我們參考。

伍、子音刪除 Consonant Deletion

Coda 響度違規時，除了上節的兩種補救方法外，第三種方法就是刪除其中一個子音，而遭刪除的必定是低響度的子音，在英語中最著名的例子，就是鼻音前子音/g/的刪除（Pre-nasal /g/-deletion）：

(13) 鼻音前子音/g/的刪除（Pre-nasal /g/-deletion）部份例字

/g/ 消失	/g/ 出現
sign / resign	signature / resignation
paradigm / phlegm	paradigmatic / phlegmatic

在 coda 的 /-gn/ 或 /-gm/ 都違背了 coda 響度須下降的要求。如果 coda 尾音是鼻音時，/g/就被刪除，而排除了響度的違規狀態。相對的，在 signature 及 paradigmatic 中的/g/則可以保留下來，因為在劃分單字音節時，/g/ 與鼻音是分屬兩個不同音節，自然沒有 coda 違規的情形。

(14) 音節劃分後（句點代表音節切分處）

sig.na.ture：　/ g /為前一音節 coda，/ n /為後一音節 onset。
pa.ra.dig.ma.tic：/ g /為前一音節 coda，/ m /為後一音節 onset。

同樣的，在上節所提的 prism 一字，其 coda /-zm/可有兩種音變。但在其形容詞 prismatic 中的/-zm-/則無任何變化，既無母音插入亦無音節性子音產生。原因也在於音節劃分後，/z/與/m/已不屬同一 coda，既無 coda 違規，自無音變可能。

(15) 音節劃分後

pris.ma.tic:　/z /為前一音節 coda，/m /為後一音節 onset。

當然，英語中消失的子音不限於上述各例，大家熟知的尚有

(16) long vs. longer (/ g /: 消失 vs. 出現)
(17) iamb vs. iambic (/ b /: 消失 vs. 出現)

這類單字的字尾雙子音並不違背 coda 響度下降的規定，因此/ g /與/ b /的消失，無關於響度的要求。例(16)音變的原因在於英語構字的後綴（suffix）性質[3]。例(17)音變的原因則有關於「緊鄰音互異原則」（Obligatory Contour Principle）的延伸[4]。二者的理論背景，不易簡單闡釋，限於篇幅，未能深入討論。但是不可忽略的仍是音節的觀念。在（16）、（17）兩例中子音的刪除，仍限於同一音節之內，且遭刪除的子音亦為低響度子音。一旦兩子音脫離了同一音節，音變也就不能發生：longer 與 iambic 兩字分音節後，/ g /與/ b /均可出現：

（18）lon.ger：/ ŋ /為前一音節 coda，/ g /為後一音節 onset。
（19）iam.bic：/ m /為前一音節 coda，/ b /為後一音節 onset。

綜合上面各節說明，可見「音節」的觀念在英語音韻學中，扮演多麼重要的角色。此外，英語的字重音落點及字重音遷移（包含國內教學界俗稱的「名前動後」重音），亦與音節結構息息相關。現將上述音節理論背景整理如下：

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[3] 不同性質的單字後綴(suffixes)，對音韻變化有不同的影響。如「行為者」字尾的-er，與動詞結合後，不影響原字根語音：singer，hanger。形容詞比較級的字尾-er，對原字根語音則有影響：longer，stronger。這種涉及「構詞成分」而產生的差異，屬於「構詞音韻學」(Lexical Phonology)的研究焦點。

[4] Obligatory Contour Principle (OCP)「緊鄰音調互異原則」，首現於對非洲語言語調的研究。其要旨為：相緊鄰的兩個語調必須互異，即不可有「平平」、「升升」、「降降」的語調並列。國語中的「三聲變調」即可視為 OCP 一例。推而廣之，在其他非語調語言中，OCP 似仍可解讀為「緊鄰音互異原則」，限制近似音緊鄰出現，如英語中任兩個鼻音，都不可在同音節緊鄰出現。

(20) 音節與響度

A. 音節為語音現象的重要單位，許多音韻現象只能在此單位發生。

B. 音節有其內部結構。

C. 音節內單音排列順序有限制，限制原則之一是語音響度。

D. 響度違規的子音排列順序，或完全不可能出現(見附表)，
或導致各類音變。

陸、音節劃分 Syllabification

不同於中文方塊字的一字一音節，英語的單字常含有多個音節。所以在帶讀多音節單字時，教師常須拆解單字成為音節，以便引領學生唸讀。劃分音節的方法有二（1）傳統的拼字劃分。(2）音韻學上的音節劃分。前者可見於字典的拼字劃分，主要目的在於幫助手寫或打字時分割單字。在當今電腦排版方便整齊的時代，此一分割音節的方法顯已失去意義。後者則是以音為準的劃分方法，屬於音韻學的研究範疇。

當兩母音中間出現子音（群）時，就產生分割音節的問題。以英語而言，兩母音中間出現子音的狀況有四種：

(21) 英語母音間子音(群)四種狀況

A. VCV： baby, second, token, repeat, major, etc.

B. VCCV： enjoy, fifty, random, master, invent, etc.

C. VCCCV： describe, empty, imply, monster, impress, display, etc.

D. VCCCCV： construction, transcribe, instruct, circumscribe, etc.

音韻學上對音節劃分的方法非常簡單：「前子音極多原則」(Maximal Onset Principle)，即儘量擴大 onset 數量，onset 容納不下的，才歸給前一音節為其 coda。如 transcribe 中的四子音群/ -nskr- /，最大的合法 onset 是/ skr- /，所以此三音歸後一音節 onset，容納不下的/ n /，則分配為前一音節 coda[5]。

又如 random 字中的/ -nd- /，此兩音不可同在 onset（違背 onset 響度須上的要求），亦不可同在 coda，因為此時 onset 成空。可是 onset 實際上可以有一子音 /d/。所以，唯一能滿足「前子音極多原則」的分割方法是：拆開兩子音，分屬兩個音節。

另外，如 Kelly 被劃分為/ kɛ.lɪ / 時，產生了短母音出現在開放重音節的違法音節/kɛ/，為了補救這種問題，音韻學家設計了抽象的「雙棲子音」(ambisyllabicity)

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[5] 亦有學者以為 Maximal Onset Principle (MOP) 須受限於構詞因素。如 transfer 一字是由 trans-及字根-fer (refer, confer, prefer, defer, etc.) 組成。若依 MOP 求取最大的 onset，而分割為 tran.sfer，將使得詞素界線喪失。因此他們認為 transcribe 該分割為/trans.kraib/。

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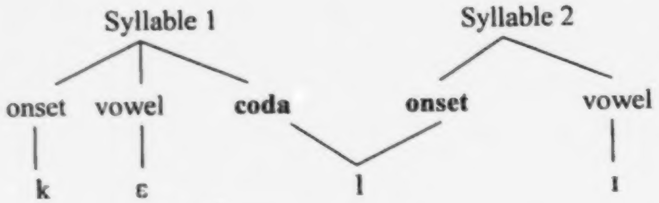
來處理此一現象。即認定/ l /音為前後兩音節所共享，而分別棲息在前一音節的coda及後一音節的onset。

(22) 雙棲子音(簡圖)



雙棲子音的部分證據來自英語的單字拼法。例如重疊子音字母只可出現在字中及字尾，卻絕對不出現在字首。

(23) 英語重疊子音字母部份例字

A. 字首：無

B. 字中：Kelly, happy, settle, carry, common, cannon, bubble, lesson, etc.

C. 字尾：egg, call, puff, kiss, add, pick, jazz, etc.

明顯可見，重疊子音字母不論出現位置，且實際上只能發一個單音，功能其實相同：(1) 封閉音節 (2) 保障短母音合法出現在此一封閉音節。既然字首位置無能封閉音節，重疊子音字母自然不可能在此出現。

相對的，在baby，token中，因前一音節母音均為長音，可出現在開放音節尾，/ b /與/ k /自然無須雙棲，拼法上也就不會有子音字母重疊。

最後，在類似master單字中，後一音節的合法onset可以是單一的/ t /，也可以是雙音的/ st /。到底該分割成 /mas.ter /，以保障前音節的短母音，或分割成/ ma.ster /，而指定/ s /雙棲，在學術界仍有爭議。

柒、理論與教學的互動

受限於往日對音節結構概念的認識模糊，國內英語教學上，「音節」似乎只是一個語音單位名詞。所論者大約僅限於音節的輕重，對於音節在英語音韻系統中的作用，向來受到忽略。因此許多現象，如構字限制及各種音變（包括音節性子音，子音刪除，及重音遷移等），都被視為獨立現象。老師分開來教，學生也分開來學。本文主要目的即希望藉由對音節理論的說明，可以將分離凌亂的單一現象，統合整理為相互關聯的系統知識。從理解的層次，對英語音韻系統，有所領悟。

至於文中所提一些教學法上的建議，如拼音成節的步驟，合理音節劃分的方

法，皆由理論觀點出發。至於在實際教法上，則有待更進一步教學效果上的實證檢驗。雖然多數學者認定，發音知識的說明有助於語音學習。然而，發音課程的重點仍在於教會正確的發音。因此，理論知識講授的多寡，仍該由第一線教師依其學生的年齡或語文程度，酌量取材。理論研究的結果，在實際教學上，或可提供多一層面的思考，卻不該成為規範式的框架。

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附錄

英語的 CODA 雙子音分佈表:

	p	b	t	d	k	g	f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ	tʃ	dʒ	m	n	ŋ	l	r
p			pt						pθ		ps						**OS codas：全缺**				
b				bd								bz									
t											ts										
d									dθ			dz									
k			kt								ks										
g				gd								gz									
f			ft						fθ		fs										
v				vd								vz									
θ				θd							θs										
ð												ðz									
s	sp		st		sk																
z				zd																	
ʃ			ʃt																		
ʒ				ʒd																	
tʃ																					
dʒ																					
m	mp			md								mz									
n			nt	nd			nf		nθ			nz			ntʃ	ndʒ					
ŋ				ŋd	ŋk							ŋz									
l	lp	lb	lt	ld	lk		lf	lv	lθ		ls	lz			ltʃ	ldʒ	lm	ln			
r	rp	rb	rt	rd	rk	rg	rf	rv	rθ		rs	rz	rʃ		rtʃ	rdʒ	rm	rn		rl	

1. 低響度子音統稱為 Obstruents (O)，中響度子音統稱為 Sonorants (S)，本表分為四大區，由右上起，依順時鐘方向循序為 OS, SS, SO, OO 四類 Coda 組合。
2. OS codas 所指為 Obstruent + Sonorant 的雙子音 Codas。因其響度違規，而完全不存在。
3. /h/ 未列，因其不在子音群出現。/tʃ/, /dʒ/ 視為單子音。
4. 參考資料：Prator and Robinett (1985: 177-178).

English Syllable Structure: Theory and Teaching Application

Abstract

The present study introduces some important research findings in the theoretical study of English syllables. Numerous examples are provided to illustrate the crucial role that the syllable has to play in many phonological processes in English. In addition to theoretical exposition, suggestions are made on how phonological theory may be adapted for teaching English pronunciation in the classroom.

Key Words: English phonology, syllable structure, syllabic consonants, sonority, syllabification

＊更正啟事：由於本篇文章於27卷第三期出刊時音標呈現亂碼，今重新刊登一次，在此向各讀者致歉。

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如何利用英文童書繪本
輔助九年一貫課程之兒童英語教學

林慧麗

台灣大學

摘要

本文旨在探討英語童書繪本在九年一貫國小英語教學的架構中，可行的運用方法與原則。首先從外語教學、兒童語言發展心理學等角度，分析英語童書繪本對兒童學習外語有效果的原因—提供豐富情境。並考慮九年一貫的教學理念，建議兩種實際運用繪本時的教學安排，並分別舉例說明。最後列舉五點原則：一、卷宗式評量；二、圖書資源共享；三、選擇合宜的繪本；四、與多元智慧之關聯；五、善用網路資源。

關鍵字：兒童英語教學　英語童書繪本　九年一貫

壹、前言

教育部於1998年9月30日公佈「國民教育階段九年一貫課程總綱」，以七大學習領域主導學科內容，學習領域包括語文、數學、社會、自然與科技、藝術與人文、健康與體育、綜合活動等七大領域。並以培養學生擁有「基本能力」為主要核心，包括了解自我與發展潛能、溝通表達與分享、尊重關懷與團隊合作、主動探索與研究、獨立思考與解決問題、運用科技與資訊、規劃組織與執行、美感欣賞表達與分享、文化學習與國際理解、生涯規劃與終身學習等十項能力。其中語文學習領域：包含本國語文、英語、外國語文等，注重對語文的聽說讀寫、基本溝通能力、文化與習俗等方面的學習。面對如此深刻廣泛的教學革新，特別是新增加的國小英語教學，在執行層面不免必須嘗試新的做法。筆者在此將提出一點個人反思的淺見，分析以英文兒童讀物有效帶領兒童英文學習的可能原因，並考慮九年一貫的教學理念與做法，設計出兩種理論上可行的教學架構。目的在提供關心兒童英語教學人士一些新的想法與做法，希望達到拋磚引玉的效果。

目前國小每班約有三十人左右，學童之間英語程度差異極大，但教材內容卻是固定的，容易使教師產生無法因材施教的困擾。程度較好的學童，容易感到無聊而失去學習的動機；程度太差的孩子，則較易因為跟不上進度，而對英語產生排斥畏懼的反應。若能在教學計劃中，適當的安插繪本故事，應該可以部分解決教材內容固定的問題。以下將進一步闡述繪本教學之所以有效的可能原因，以及

實際應用上可能的教學架構。

貳、童書繪本與兒童語言學習

知名的外語教學專家 Prof. Rod Ellis 於 2001 年九月應政治大學英語系之邀，發表了一系列專題演講，其中不斷強調外語學習不能只靠課堂上列舉文法規則式的教導(即顯性學習，explicit instruction)。Ellis 強調，要學好外語，廣泛的閱讀是關鍵之一，因為只有透過大量潛移默化的接觸(即隱式學習，implicit acquisition)，才能真正掌握該語文的精髓。類似的學說亦常見於 SLA(second language acquisition)的文獻中，如 Krashen 與 Terrell 的 Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983)。Krashen 於 2001 年 11 月應邀在劍潭青年活動中心舉辦的英語文教學研討會中，發表了一場演講，亦強調主動閱讀(free voluntary reading)對外語學習的幫助。

無論是由心理語言學的觀點，或是認知心理學的觀點，抑或社會語言學的觀點，來分析 Ellis 與 Krashen 的建議，都會得到相同的結論—大量的、自發的閱讀是有力的語言學習管道(e.g. Snow, 1993; 鄭昭明, 1997; Hakuta, 1986)。想要成功習得外語，需要熟習許多新的詞彙與文法。關於英文字彙的學習，可針對教育部已經正式頒布的常用單字，進行直接且有系統的教學。但是關於文法的學習，一般強調重複練習的制約學習，無法幫助我們學會如文法般複雜的規則，或是建構出對應不同文化觀點的心理辭典(mental lexicon)。沉浸在大量的輸入資料中，讓一次又一次主動理解的過程，伴隨著該目標外語文化中特有的成分，產生的隱式學習的效果，對於外語的習得，才是實在扎根的做法。

但是，對於初學英語的學童，要求他們藉由廣泛、主動的閱讀，自然地習得英語，實質上並不可行。不過即便如此，這樣的理念，還是可以向下延伸到「聽故事」的層面。理由如下：

一、語音知覺與語言學習：Bloom(1998)提到以聽覺呈現語言刺激的嬰兒實驗—對情境因素加以操弄，發現在實驗前半段已經呈現過的單字，若在相同的刺激情境下，較容易再度被嬰兒認出。雖然他並不是針對外語的聽覺做實驗，但是並不難推論，外語聽覺刺激對於越小的孩子，也應該更加具有與母語聽覺刺激相同的情境激發效果。根據 Wode(1994)的整理實徵研究的結果顯示，分辨其他語言(但非母語)音素的能力，自六個月到一歲間起，漸漸消退，直到約十七、八歲時，語音分辨的系統，才會完全與同一母語的成人相仿。換言之，若是在辨識語音能力尚未完全被母語定型時，讓兒童有機會聽到富含情境因子的繪本故事，語音知覺的效果，理論上應該會有與母語習得較為相近的效果。

二、認知發展心理學與兒童語言學習：兒童語言發展心理學家 Bloom, L.根據過去數十年母語習得研究的文獻，歸納出以下結論：要了解語言發展，必須整

合發展同一時期的認知、情意與社會三方面的發展，若非如此，不足以解釋嬰幼兒語言發展的眾多現象，因為語言習得當下的情境因素，乃綜合了此三方面發展的整體呈現 (Bloom, 1998)。根據 Piaget(1999)的認知發展理論，學習是主動建構的過程。個體為了適應(adaptation)，透過同化外界知識(assimilation)，與調整自身知識體系(accommodation)，逐漸在求取平衡(equilibrium)的過程中發展出新的認知體系。學齡前後的兒童正由前運思期進入具體運思期，其特質為能夠了解表徵(representation)的作用，知道一件事物可以由另一種表面特質完全不同的事物所代表，不再受限於此時此地(here and now)。他們也能在心裡操弄這些表徵，不需要實際去演練。繪本中提供許多兒童已經了解或比較熟悉的情境，有助於引起兒童的興趣，並產生同化作用，幫助兒童以過去熟悉的經驗，了解圖畫中的表徵。另一方面，逐漸熟悉的聲音組態，雖然與所熟悉的母語不同，但仍能透過各種活動的重複，引起兒童的注意。這樣的注意代表的是適應過程的起點。為了達到平衡，個體必須調整舊有的系統，主動建構新的系統，以適應新的表徵(亦即外語的聲音模組)帶來暫時的不平衡。這種由新的表徵或基模引起的失衡與再平衡過程會一再產生，透過個體適應環境的機制，使知識建構的結果得以發生。

三、鷹架式(scaffolding)學習與繪本：Vygotsky(1978)認為社會對個人的影響，透過教育與同儕支持討論方式所架起的鷹架，讓學習者能循著發展近區(zone of proximal development, ZPD)，逐漸學會新的知識。當兒童單獨解決問題時所能及的極限，與輔以協助時所能及的極限，這兩者之間的區段，稱為發展近區。協助兒童學習者，必須了解其發展近區所在，並且藉之搭起鷹架。在學習外語的情境中，這個鷹架可以藉由繪本的導讀與相關的活動進行搭建。外語學習與學習母語之間最大的不同點之一，在於外語學習環境中，往往無法提供語言使用者足夠的情境因子，因此學習時必須大量藉著母語轉譯。眾所週知的外語學習現象—第一語言干擾(first language interference)往往在轉譯時無法控制地產生。雖然以母語輔助外語教學也能有鷹架搭建的效果，但是有時必須付出代價。MacWhinney(1997)的 competition model 就建議若不能兩種語言同步開始學習，為了避免兩個語言系統競爭時，較強勢的語言產生過當干擾，最好能建立外語與內在認知系統之間直接的連結。兒童英語繪本中的圖畫、情節、上下文、懸疑性等等因素，使內在認知系統得以被激發，與聲音組態的配對便可以在最少母語介入的情況下完成。如此所搭之鷹架，建構的是更獨立的外語知識系統。

綜合以上各點，可以得到以下結論：為兒童朗讀英語童書繪本時，兒童可以因著本身對語音知覺的敏感度，由聆聽的經驗中逐漸累積對聲音組態當中之規律的熟悉度，加上繪本藉由圖畫、情節所提供的情境，進而了解這些規律的聲音組態所具有的獨特意義。聲音與情境的配對學習並非一般制約式的背誦，而是情意、認知與社會三個層面融合的作用。在情意層面，歷史學家 Gombrich(1972)

曾指出視覺意象最是引人入勝。繪本本身的構圖與色彩配合著人物與情節，喚起兒童的注意，使聆聽的經驗充滿驚奇。在認知層面，兒童已有能力運用表徵建構知識，聆聽繪本的經驗使兒童一方面能以過去熟悉的基模(schema)同化所見的圖畫情節，另一方面又需要不斷調整與過去聽覺經驗不符的基模，以達到系統的平衡，因此過程中主動的建構出新的知識。在社會層面，成人藉著繪本搭起學習鷹架，幫助兒童在不需過度依賴第一語言的情況下，逐漸跨越發展近區。繪本導讀所提供的情境，以模擬母語學習情境的方式，同時提供情意、認知、社會三個層面的學習條件，達到語言學習的目的。

除此之外，以繪本進行兒童英語教學，有其特殊的利多之處。相較於成人，我們比較容易為兒童找到同時符合其語言、認知、情意與社會各方面發展的繪本。年紀較長才開始學習英語者，其單字量累積的速度，往往趕不上其一般認知、情意與社會面的發展，使其閱讀的內容受限於過度簡化、甚至無法引起閱讀興趣的初級讀本；而年幼的外語學習者在閱讀材料的取得上，比較能夠避免語言能力與其他幾種能力間的落差現象。除了提供豐富情境之外，童書繪本還有許多一般教科書無法提供的好處。鄭錦桂(2000)有精闢深入的整理與關於讀本選擇的討論，此處便不再贅言。

叁、兩種教學架構—以繪本為主或為輔

九年一貫反映了五項重要的教育理念：1.學校本位 2.課程統整 3.空白課程 4.能力本位 5.績效責任。其中課程統整與空白課程兩項理念，令習於傳統課程的教師負擔加重許多，但是對勇於創新的教師而言，卻是發揮教育理念的絕佳機會。

目前一般國小正規的英語教學，已有通過教育部審核的教科書作為教材。英語童書繪本如何與既定的教材配合，可以有很大的彈性。在此提出兩種可行的課程架構方案：

一、以繪本為主軸進行教學活動：利用空白課程、社團活動或是課程空檔，安排程度適中的繪本。以繪本為主軸的教學活動不需配合其他主題，選擇時自由度較大，也因可支配的時間較多，可以配合更多與繪本主題相關的活動。因此可以選擇字數較多、句型變化較多、故事情節較複雜的繪本，即程度比學生目前的英語文程度稍難一點的繪本。搭配的相關活動，配合協同教學的理念，可以彈性地採取全體、分組或個人獨立的方式進行。並可配合繪本主題設計活動單，於課堂上進行活動，或是讓孩子帶回家做進一步練習或複習。以下舉例說明：

(一)、以 Little Blue and Little Yellow (作者: Leo Lionni, 出版: Scholastic)進行教學。準備投影片，按書中角色裁成各種形狀，各別以油性簽字筆塗上適當的顏色。

(二)、把角色的名字介紹給學生，請數位同學分別手持這些形狀，扮演書中

的角色，到講台上排成一排。

(三)、首先利用書中的重點，以中文描述故事概要，一面講述，一面指導台上同學表演。

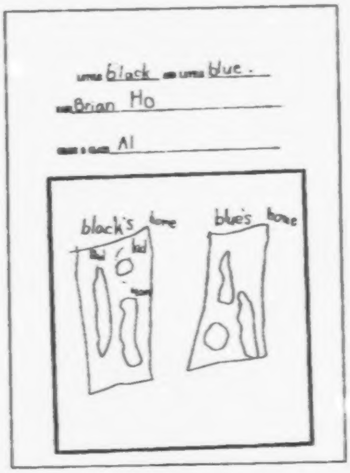
(四)、請同學下臺，以英文念故事至少一遍，一面朗讀一面以手指出書中的圖示，若有同學針對不懂的單字發問，請大家先用心用耳聆聽。

(五)、朗讀之後，再請同學上台利用道具演出，這一次教師以英文朗讀故事引導表演，隨時佐以身體語言協助解釋表演內容與文字。

(六)、分組進行活動時，每一組都盡量安排一位程度較佳的孩子，請他作為組長，負責朗誦故事、為組員解釋等等。若無法如此，可以輔以事先錄好的故事內文朗誦錄音帶。教師利用分組活動的時間，在小組間走動、觀察、紀錄，並且提供適時的協助。準備更多空白投影片與彩色油性筆，鼓勵學生自製其他顏色的角色。

(七)、發下學習單(圖一；附錄一)，在課堂上進行個別教學，或是作為作業。鼓勵學生以圖或文字，創造自己的故事。

(八)、提供與本書主題—「顏色」和「友誼」—相關的繪本，供學生自由閱讀。例如：Elizabeth and Larry (作者：Marilyn Sadler, 繪者：Roger Bollen, 出版：Simon and Schuster)；Chester's Way (作者：Kevin Henkes, 出版：Scholastic)；Seven Blind Mice (作者：Ed Young, 出版：Putnam)



圖一：學習單練習範例

二、以繪本配合課程統整的主題/正式英語課程的內容進行教學活動：九年一貫教學最被彰顯的特色之一是課程統整。課程統整的原則包括學科內教材的統整、學科間教材的連結、學科教材與學校活動的統整、以及學習與生活經驗的統整。英語童書繪本的內容主題包羅萬象，若能妥善運用，是輔助課程統整的一大利器。目前正式英語課程教材的編排，多以主題為章節編排的軸心，以練習字彙與句型。為學生選擇與正式教材進行之主題相關、或包含同

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類句型的繪本，不但可以擴充語彙庫或熟悉同類句型，也提高學習的趣味性。但是相對於以繪本為主軸的教學活動，教師們能夠運用的時間較少，主題與內容也相對受到限制。選擇繪本時，最好先考慮難度較低的(如：單字較少、重複句型多)，再輔以難度較高的繪本做為補充教材。例如：Do You Want to Be My Friend? (作者：Eric Carle, 出版：Philomel) 不斷重複的問句，一方面讓學生有機會練習類似的句型，其主題亦可搭配「動物」或「友誼」。又如：Whose Mouse Are You? (作者：Robert Kraus, 繪者：Jose Aruego, 出版：Scholastic)，可以與「家庭」的主題配合，也可以做為 “Where is….?”句型的補充教材。

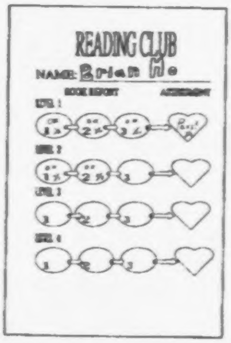
以上兩種教案的架構並不相互抵觸，可以視不同的需要，做不同的運用。在實際的操演上，其實也不必太過拘泥於教案。筆者設計教案的根據，是理想中的教學狀況。真實的教學情境中，必須適時做合宜的微調。

肆、繪本導讀的原則與配套措施

以下列出幾項有關繪本導讀的原則與配套措施的建議，供教師參考：

一、卷宗式評量：繪本導讀不要求學生逐字將繪本內容翻譯成中文，重點在故事整體的理解，因此一般紙筆的評量並不適用，利用卷宗式(portfolio)評量，配合學習單活動，更能激發學生的興趣。筆者建議幾種學習單(附錄二、三、四)，分別為：

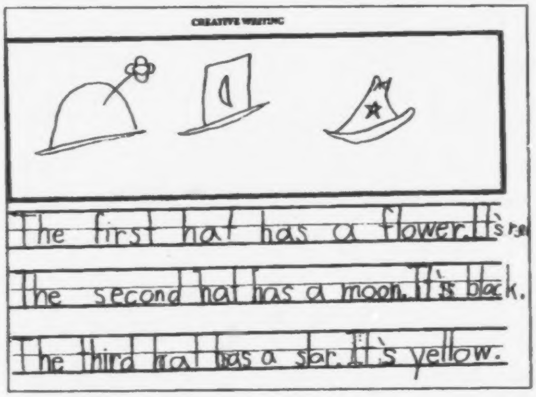
(一)、Reading Club：將繪本依難度分為數級，鼓勵學生閱讀。以附錄二之學習單為例，分為四級，每級數本繪本。學生依循分級的難度，每讀完一本繪本便可以向教師提出口頭或書面報告(後者可參考附錄四：Book Report)，由教師判斷學生是否理解該繪本，若教師認可，便可在學習單上做紀錄，當學生閱讀了至少三本該級之繪本後，便可晉級。此種制度以學生內在動機做為回饋，比利用其他有形獎品在培養閱讀興趣上，更具長期效果。範例請見圖二。


READING CLUB
NAME: Brian Ho

圖二: Reading Club 範例

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

(二)、Creative Writing: 鼓勵初學英文的學生，利用這種學習單練習寫作。以圖文並列的方式，彌補學生以純文字紀錄能力的不足。可以使用單張紀錄日記或週記，或以連續數張，裝訂成本的型態，提供予學生自創簡易繪本。可以單獨創作方式或小組集體創作的方式進行。範例可參考圖三。


CREATIVE WRITING

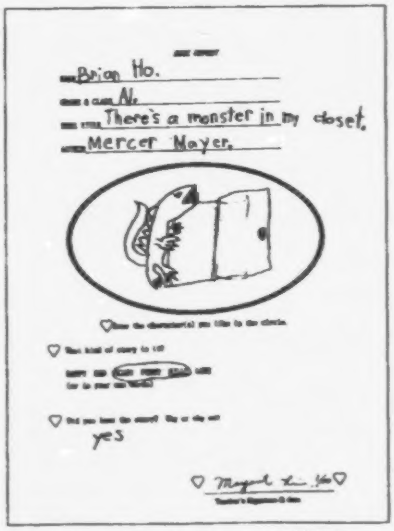
The first hat has a flower. It's r

The second hat has a moon. It's black.

The third hat has a star. It's yellow.

圖三: Creative Writing 範例

(三)、Book Report: 可做為學生非正式的讀書報告單，並可搭配 Book Club 的課外閱讀。此作業單上的問題，可以依照繪本不同的主題彈性調整。教師視學生反應決定是否逐字解釋作業單上的問題。若學生尚無法清楚地以英文描述心得，可採用中文撰寫。由 Book Report 的內容，教師可以進一步掌握每一個學生的學習進度，藉以做為課程安排的參考。


Brian Ho.

Al.

There's a monster in my closet.

Mercer Mayer.

yes

圖四: Book Report 範例

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

二、圖書資源共享：精裝繪本的單價頗高，若每一個班級能設立一個小型的圖書櫃，並能在事前協調好，以免購買相同的書籍，再藉著巡迴方式，使每一批難度合宜的書，都能有機會出現在每一個班級。教育當局若無法編列各校購書預算，則應設法向民間社團募取經費(例如：認養方式)。規模較小的學校可以考慮與鄰近學校合作，共享圖書資源。對於偏遠地區的學校，甚至可以考慮以流動圖書館的型態，縮小城鄉差距。

三、選擇合宜的繪本：合宜的繪本要能適合該年齡學童認知、情感、語言等方面的能力與特質。最簡便的方式是參考出版社所提供的適讀年齡。然而本地英語學習的質與量，皆無法與英語系國家相提並論，學習者平均單字量，理論上也勢必比同年齡的英語系學童少。文章可讀性(readability)的研究，提供了一條可行的出路。有關文章可讀性的研究，指出了詞彙的難度是預測文章可讀性的最佳變項(Nation & Coady, 1989)。而心理語言學研究閱讀與詞頻(word frequency)之間的關係，結果也指出，高頻詞較低頻詞容易被激發(Underwood & Batt, 1996)。在兼顧讀本真切性(authenticity)的前提下，建立一套以比對真切語料(authentic corpus)與繪本間詞頻相關度的診斷模式，有實質上的意義；此模式充分利用電腦科技的檢索功能，以詞頻對比模式，提供教師選擇讀本時的客觀參考資料(胡志偉，林慧麗, 2002)。

四、繪本與多元智慧：Gardner(1983)在 Frames of Mind 一書中，正式提出多元智慧的觀點。Gardner 企圖推翻過去獨重學業成績的智慧一元論，提出了以下七種智慧因素：1.語言能力：包括口語或書寫對語言的操弄；2.音樂能力：音色的敏感，音高的偵測，音樂的欣賞與創作；3.邏輯數字能力：數理哲學等等具有條理的抽象思考能力；4.空間能力：建築、美術、空間感與方向感；5.身體平衡能力：如運動、跳舞等需要熟練身體技巧的活動；6.人際關係 A 型：對他人感覺的體察程度；7.人際關係 B 型：對自己感受的分析能力。若僅將英語文視為一門以紙筆測量的科目，從多元智能的角度看來，是不利於學習的，畢竟語文智能只是諸多智能之一。繪本的內容有詩歌、敘事、推理、想像等等，涉及的主題更是不勝枚舉，輔以各種風格的插畫，可以協助教學者，落實尊重多元智慧的教育精神。教師應該隨時留意不同學習風格的學生所擅長的能力為何，在選擇或推薦繪本時，便能順水推舟。即使同一本繪本，也能利用其主題，鼓勵學生以不同方式(如：戲劇、朗讀、美勞、科學活動、音樂)，進行相關教學活動。例如在 Using Caldecotts Across the Curriculum (Novelli, 1998)一書中，便有許多符合多元智慧精神的具體教案設計，可以做為教師設計教案時的參考。除此之外，網路上有無盡的資源，於下一節中闡述。

五、善用網路資源：網路上有許多與繪本有關的資源，妥善運用將使教學設計如魚得水。例如：

(一)、Carol Hurst's Children's Literature Site

網址：http://www.carolhurst.com/index.html)；

(二)、The Children's Literature Web Guide

網址: http://www.acs.ucalgary.ca/~dkbrown/index.html；

(三)、KidsClicks! Literature

網址：http://sunsite.berkeley.edu/KidsClick!/toplite.html)。

利用網路搜尋引擎，以關鍵字查詢，如 Children's Literature、Picture Books，可以發現更多的相關網站。除了利用國外現成的網路資訊之外，筆者建議相關的教學研究組織，能夠集思廣益，成立國內兒童英語繪本教學資源的專門網站。這應該是一個具有互動功能的教學資源共享園地，透過網路寬廣空間的特質，以及特殊的連結功能，讓有心的教師得到動態與靜態的資訊，並發表自己獨創的教案與心得。而雙向的交流功能，使網站使用者也同時是網站的主體。主網頁之下可以包含以下五個區域：一、連結區：提供國內、外繪本相關網站，以及其他英語教學網路資源的網路連結，讓教師能更有效率的上網查詢相關訊息，同時接受新連結網站的推薦；二、互動討論區：以留言版的型態，供教師自由設定討論主題，提出問題並交流教學心得；三、教案發表區：提供網路空間，以網頁的型態呈現，教師可上傳自行研發的創意教案，亦可由此下載其他教師的教案，檔案類型除了一般文字之外，也可以提供聲音檔，影像檔，充分利用電腦科技多媒體的功能；四、電子報區：定期出刊，可線上訂閱，將站內該期間內新訊彙整送出；五、虛擬研習活動區：邀請英語教學專家，或對使用繪本教學有特別心得的教師，舉辦線上研習活動。

伍、結語

二十一世紀的教學，不再以知識的傳授為主，取而代之的新觀念，是傳授獲得知識的方法。兒童英語教學的對象是可塑性極高的學童，不應再侷限於單純利用遊戲做為傳遞知識媒介的狹隘作法，而應該採用更有創意的教學，以激發孩子們學習的動機。英語童書繪本乃極易取得與使用的工具。以繪本為基，奠定閱讀興趣，讓英語不再僅僅是一門科目，而是結合文化與情境，開展視野的工具。

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附錄一

LITTLE ____________ AND LITTLE ______________

NAME ____

GRADE & CLASS ____

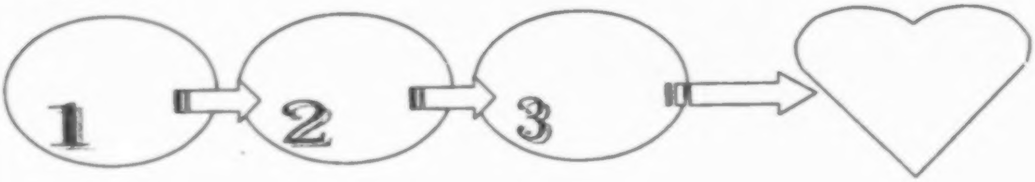
附錄二

READING CLUB

NAME: ______________________________

BOOK REPORT ASSESSMENT

LEVEL 1



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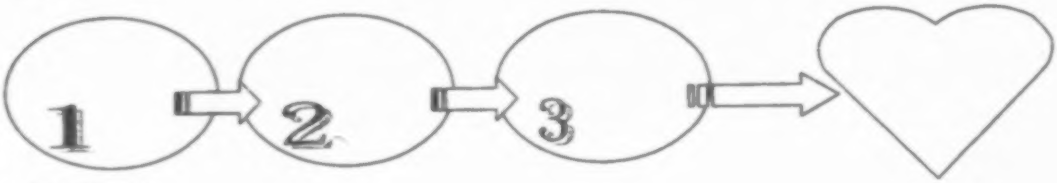

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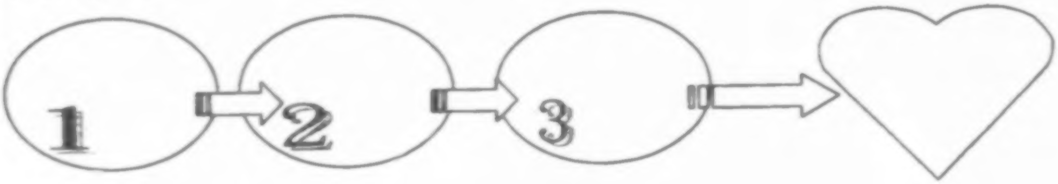

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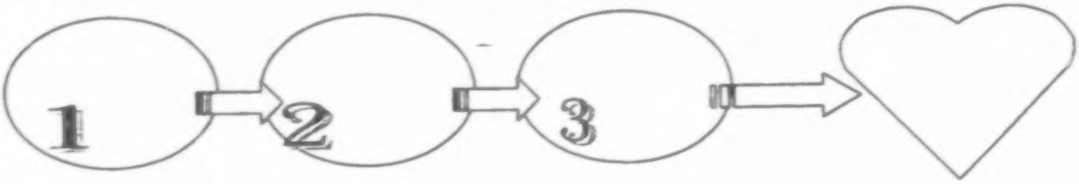

附錄三

CREATIVE WRITING

附錄四

BOOK REPORT

NAME____________________________________

GRADE & CLASS______________________________

BOOK TITLE________________________________

AUTHOR__________________________________

♡ Draw the character(s) you like in the circle.

♡ What kind of story is it?

HAPPY SAD SCARY FUNNY SILLY LOVE
(or in your own words)

♡ Did you love the story? Why or why not

♡ ________________________ ♡

Teacher's Signature & Date

英語教學 *English Teaching & Learning*
27.4 (April 2003)

Integrating English Children's Picture Books with Teaching Children English as a Foreign Language in 9-Year Joint Curricula Plan for Elementary and Junior High Schools

Abstract

This article discusses feasible curriculum designs and principles of using English children's picture books under the framework of the Nine-year Joint Curricula Plan for Elementary and Junior High Schools. Picture books provide readers with an ample amount of contextual information, which has been proved to be helpful for learning/acquiring languages. Two different curriculum designs are suggested (picture books as the main teaching material or as part of the supplementary teaching materials) with examples showing how to incorporate the usage of picture books into the Nine-year Joint Curricula Plan. It is also suggested by the author that, when English picture books are used, (1) portfolio assessment be adopted; (2) a library-like system be organized; (3) books appropriate to the cognitive abilities and English proficiency of the students be selected; (4) multiple intelligences be well integrated in classroom instruction; and (5) internet resources be wisely used and a domestic picture book teaching resource web site be constructed .

Key Words: teaching children English as a foreign language,
children's picture books, nine-year joint curricula plan for
elementary and junior high schools

英語教學 *English Teaching & Learning*
27.4 (April 2003): 31-48

新加坡的雙語政策與英語教育

許慧伶

聯合技術學院

摘要

台灣於2002年提出「挑戰2008：國家發展重點計劃」。首推的「E世代人才培育計劃」特別重視英語能力的提升和英語環境的建置。長久以來，新加坡人民的英文程度被認為是其具國際競爭力的利器。為知己知彼，實有必要了解此東南亞國家的語文政策與英語教育。本文將從歷史語言背景(多種族多語言社會、新加坡英語)、雙語政策、教育制度(學制架構、課程規劃、分流教學及升學機制)、英語教學與教材教法等角度切入。最後，對比台灣英語教學現況，以提供政府有關當局參考。

關鍵詞：新加坡　雙語政策　英語教育

壹、前言

面對全球的激烈競爭，扁政府於2002年提出「挑戰2008：國家發展重點計劃」。其十大投資之首為「E世代人才培育計劃」，提報的相關措施有(1)營造國際化生活環境：完成公文、道路、交通標誌、招牌、廣播說明等全面中英文對照(2)平衡城鄉英語教育資源 (3)大專院校教學國際化：各大學廣開以英語授課之專業課程。在此政策下，不會說英語的公教人員，考績將為乙等。此外，陳水扁總統在影音聊天室回應網友詢問「台灣加入WTO之後，要如何加強國人的英文能力」時，曾提到香港及新加坡因其英語程度比我們高，易與世界接軌，較具國際競爭力，因此，提議可嚴肅思考將英語列為第二官方語言(阿扁總統電子報91年3月30日，http://www.president.gov.tw/1_epaper)。他山之石可攻錯，因此有必要深入研究此兩個東南亞國家的英語教育。因篇幅關係，本文著重在獅城的探討上，並從歷史語言背景、獨立建國後的雙語政策與語文運動、教育制度、英語教學與教材教法等角度切入。最後提出問題與省思，期許台灣未來實施的是母語、附加語並重(additive bilingualism)的教學，而非削減性(subtractive)雙語政策。

貳、新加坡的歷史語言背景

一、多種族與多語言的社會

新加坡除了第二次世界大戰曾受日本統治外，1824至1942及1945至1959

年間則是英屬殖民地。1963 年加入馬來西亞聯邦，二年後退出，自組共和國。1965 年獨立前後，官方主要語言是英語與馬來語。據 2000 年的人口統計，76.8% 為華人，次為馬來人(13.9 %)與印度族(7.9%，多數是淡米爾人)。是受英國影響但以華人為主的多種族、多文化與多語分用(polyglossic)的國家。英、中、馬來、淡米爾是四大國語；而英語為工作、商業、各民族溝通及行政語言，地位最崇高，部分原因是殖民歷史使然。中上層社會多使用英語；英語流利者其社經地位與教育程度也較高(Foley, 1998)。Tan(1998)於 1998 年對 210 位小四、小五學生所做的問卷調查也發現，家中最常使用的語言為英文(65.7%)，次為普通話 (62.9%)、馬來語(11.4%)及淡米爾語(4.3%)。除四大民族外，還有 20 個特殊的方言族群(Kuo & Jernudd, 1993)。在華人中，福建、潮州、廣東和客家是四大方言。語碼轉換(code switching)現象在新加坡很普遍。為推行種族和諧政策，定有種族和諧日(Racial Harmony Day, 7 月 21 日)；牌誌及大眾傳媒以不同語文標示及傳播訊息，學校亦有母語活動日(Mother Tongue Language Day)之舉行。

二、新加坡英語 (Singapore English or Singlish)的特色

新加坡雖是多語言國家，英語卻是凝聚新加坡人向心力的共通媒介，讓各種族產生認同感(identity)。Kachru (1992)曾以三個圓比喻英文在世界各地的擴展，新加坡屬第二圈(Outer Circle)，亦即，英語是被制式化為額外(additional)的語言。80 年代的語言教育政策更強化英語的地位。現在它不但是官方語言、最常使用的工作語言及各種族溝通的橋樑，也是各級學校的教學媒介。

新加坡英語源自英國，但百餘年的發展結果，已融入地方色彩(local flavor)發展出自己區域性的英語(colloquial forms of Singapore English)。除了具有特殊腔調與發音外，也吸收當地語系的詞彙與語法。其特色(Tay, 1982; Forbes, 1993; Gupta, 1994; Chew, 1995; Foley, 1998; 星團體捍衛土產英語，2002)如下所示：

(一) 發音(phonetic features)
  1. 字尾子音未發出，若沒有上下文，不知是啥 pet 或 pen; bet 或 bed
  2. [r] 與 [l] 不分
  3. 長母音常縮減為短音

(二) 詞彙借用(loan words)與語意轉換
  1. 馬來文 * Don't tidor. (= Don't sleep.) (NIE Yio Siew Koon 提供)
  2. 福建話 * kiasu (怕輸) (NIE, Yio Siew Koon 提供)
  3. 與標準英語用法不同
     * My father fetch me to school. * She bring me to shop tomorrow.

(三) 語法
  1. 省略 be 動詞及助動詞 * He ready. * The boys very naughty.
  2. 動詞未與主詞一致，且以時間副詞表達時態
     * He come now. * I do homework already. * Just now I eat my food.

3. 特殊用語 * Also can.

(四) 字尾助詞 la(h) , meh, huh 充斥 * I can do la. * You not asleep meh?

(五) 夾雜語 (mixed code)

* Oh, I see, gua bu de (怪不得) *You makan (馬來語「吃」) already, isn't it?

Wong (1998)認為新加坡英語是正統、合法(indigenized)的一種，而非不標準的英式英語變體。從語用學(Pragmatics)的語境、說話者的意圖，說者與聽者的關係、言談行為(Speech Act)等角度來看，便能解釋新加坡英語在不同場合所具有的溝通功能。畢竟，人類的語言常以多層次(multi-layered)的型式存在。坊間現有 Singlish 詞典出版。近幾十年，由於大眾傳播及年輕人前往美國留學及工作關係，Singlish 在拼字與發音上也漸受美式英語影響。

參、獨立建國後的雙語政策(Bilingualism)與語文運動

1965 年獨立後，新加坡政府統整各自為政的四大源流學校，要求其遵守國定標準課程。1966 年開始於小學實施雙語教學，並尊重各校決定是以英文為第一語言，母語為第二語言，或是以母語為第一語言，英文為第二語言。但自 1987 年起，所有中、小學一律以英語為第一語言，華文、馬來文、淡米爾文為第二語言。四大源流學校獲得一統，華文學校正式結束。除了母語及道德教育課程外，英語為所有科目的教學媒介。1989 年李光耀受邀到汶萊(Brunei)王室作客時，曾表示像新加坡這樣的小國，除了透過英語來建立國際脈絡外，別無選擇，提倡母語是為避免接受英語教育的菁英與其他多數人產生鴻溝(The Straits Times, 1989/8/2)。新加坡除了利用國家機器，有系統地執行雙語政策外，一般民眾的階級意識和功利主義則扮演隱形(invisible)的語言規劃推手(Pakir, 1997)。新加坡自建國以來二個重要語言運動為：

一、說華語運動 (Speak Mandarin Campaign)

1979 年 11 月李光耀鑒於英文的推廣已趨成熟，轉而提倡說華語運動，宣揚儒家思想。公共場所及計程車到處可看到"Speak Mandarin"的海報與貼紙。公務人員與民眾接觸要說北京話，且電視、電影和廣播也禁用方言。1979 年教育部還規定，小學成績最好的 8%畢業生，要升入 9 間 Special Assistance Plan (SAP) 中學，接受英文及高級中文教育。儘管說華語運動在社會上如火如荼展開，華校卻逐漸在消失[1]。1980 年以華文為教學媒介的南洋大學甚至和以英語為教學媒介

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[1] 1978 年的教育報告書(見下表)顯示，進華文學校學生數年年減少，而就讀英文學校人數則年年增加(陳烈甫，民 71)。1984 年，申請進華校的小學一年級新生，只有 23 人(天下, 1984)。

年代	英文學校學生人數	華文學校學生人數	華文學校學生數所佔比例
1959	28,113	27,223	45.9 %
1965	36,269	17,735	30.0 %
1978	41,995	5,285	11.2 %

的新加坡大學合併成新加坡國立大學。1997年總理吳作棟(Goh Chok Tong)於國慶集會演說中(http://www1.moed.edu.sg./speeches)談到保持亞洲傳統重要性時，提到應設定中文標準，好讓一般學生，尤其是家中使用英語者，能透過努力達到此目標。教育部也著手研究如何鼓勵學生學高級中文，並使更多學校具備學習中文的環境等。目前，新加坡新聞藝術部每年舉辦「講華語運動」；民間亦有「全國中學生華語演講比賽」及「中華文化常識考試」等活動舉行。

二、講正確英語運動 (The Speak Good English Movement , SGEM)

1970年代新加坡的作家及詩人，如 Catherine Lim, Robert Yeo, Su Chen, Arthur Yap 等人(Wong, 1998)以 Singlish 從事文學創作。80年代風靡一時的話劇 "Army Daze"及1990年代大受歡迎的電視劇*鳧馬家族*和*同一屋簷下*，對 Singlish 更是推波助瀾。1999前半年當地報紙激烈討論新加坡英語的適切性。總理吳作棟在8月22日國慶集會演說中，呼籲新加坡人民說「標準英語」(standard English)，期使新加坡邁向全球化經濟強國。旋即，展開「講正確英語運動」。其對象為所有40歲以下的國民及學生，並舉辦多項活動，如36小時英語馬拉松。電視台也製作特別節目，邀請知名人士分享說英語的經驗，不許演員說 Singlish。此外，也設置網站(http://www.sgem.org.sg)解決民眾透過電子郵件所提出的英語問題。各級學校莫不積極響應，舉辦活動，如 Scrabble Contest 等(The Straits Times, 2002/4/13)。而教育部也提出三項方案：(一)糾正發音及加強教授文法。(二)對八千名中小學英語教師進行六十小時的講習，以改進教學技巧，結業者可獲新加坡劍橋文法教學證書 (Singapore-Cambridge Certificate in the Teaching of English Grammar)。(三)教育部、新加坡大學英文與文學系和講正確英語運動委員會出版了 *Speak Well. Be Understood* 書籍，書中列舉常用新加坡式英語辭彙的正確用法。教育部也與區域語言中心(RELC)推出5本 *Grammar Matters* 的小冊子。英國文化協會(The British Council)亦提供免付費的 phone-in 課程響應(1800-8386030)。光是 Festival 2001 就有100多場活動、比賽及刊物宣導。講正確英語運動(SGEM)現已成為新加坡每年四月、五月的重大盛會。

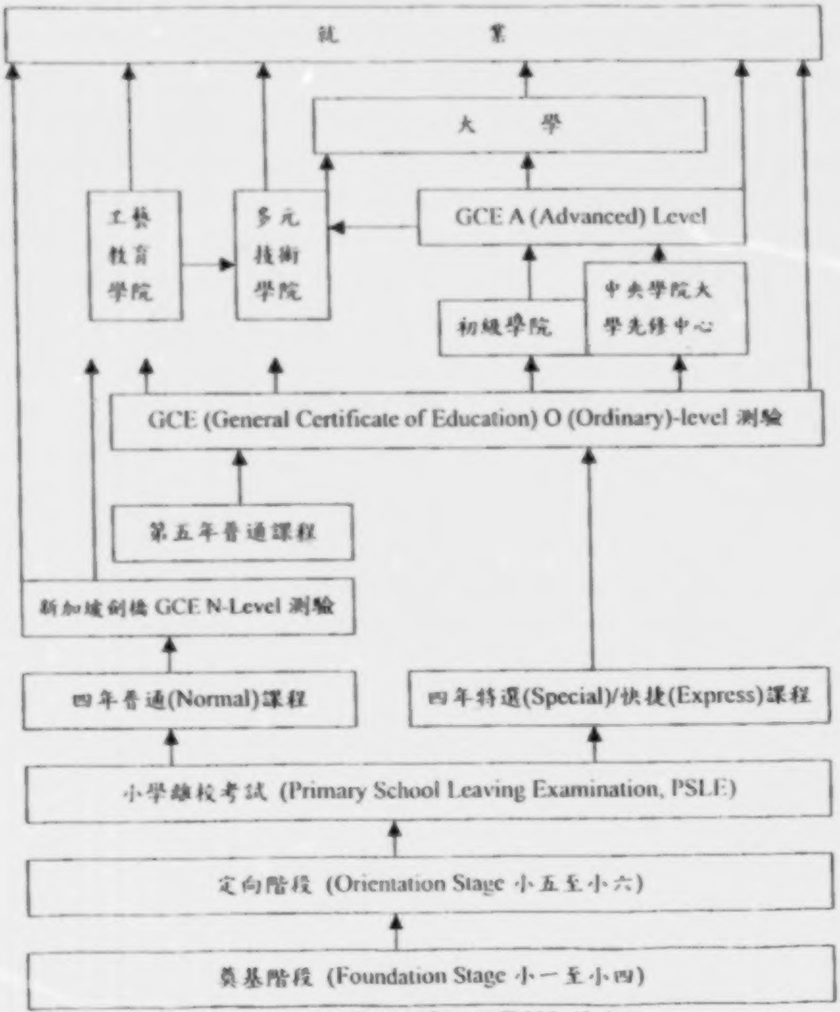
肆、新加坡的教育制度

鑒於全球資訊科技進步，新加坡教育部於1998年出版了 *Learning to Think, Thinking to Learn: Towards Thinking Schools, Learning Nation*。在此願景下，規劃出 Desired Outcome of Education 以培育學生應付知識經濟時代的競爭。由過去效率為本教育轉為才能為本教育 (Ability-driven education)，強調發掘每個學生才能。現就新加坡學制架構、課程規劃、分流教學與升學機制說明於下：

一、學制架構 (見圖一)

新加坡每學年有4個學期 (term)，每學期10週。自1991年教育改革後，即

採行非義務教育的「六四二學制」，即小學六年、中學四年或五年、大學先修有二年制初級學院(Junior College)及三年制中央學院大學先修中心(Centralised Institute Pre-U Centres)、多元技術學院(Polytechnics)或工藝教育學院(ITE, Institute of Technical Education)。大學為三年制，修讀教育學院需四年，而榮譽學位為一年。新加坡小學及中學教育雖不是義務，但已相當普及。1999 年 12 月成立「義務教育委員會」著手研究實施方式與範圍。此報告已於 2000 年 7 月出爐，並公告於教育部網站(http://www1.moe.edu.sg)，預計 2003 年開始於小一實施。義務教育強調下列五項：國家教育、思考技巧、資訊科技、課外活動與道德教育。


就 業
大 學
工藝教育學院
多元技術學院
GCE A (Advanced) Level
初級學院
中央學院大學先修中心
GCE (General Certificate of Education) O (Ordinary)-level 測驗
第五年普通課程
新加坡劍橋 GCE N-Level 測驗
四年普通(Normal)課程
四年特選(Special)/快捷(Express)課程
小學離校考試 (Primary School Leaving Examination, PSLE)
定向階段 (Orientation Stage 小五至小六)
奠基階段 (Foundation Stage 小一至小四)

圖一: 1991 年後所實施的學制架構流程

二、課程規劃

課程規劃與發展部門(Curriculum Planning & Development Division)為一專責機構。新課程已於 2001 年推行，強調八個核心技能與價值的培養：讀寫和計算技能、資訊技能、思考技能與創造力、溝通技能、知識應用技能、社交與合作技能、自我管理技能及品德發展。此次課程革新亦重視創意思考教學及專題作品(project-based work)。專題(PW)因具有跨領域、主動學習、分工合作、口頭報告、過程學習與結果並重等特色，已從 2000 年起分階段於非畢業班實施(小三至小五，中一至中三，初級學院一年級)。華僑中學(The Chinese High School)甚至定有 Project Day，其網頁(http://www.chs.edu.sg)列有 PW 相關資源、質的研究、量的研究、兩居 Language Arts(英文)及評分等指引。在課程時數方面，規定各級學校必須刪減三分之一，以加強學生學習如何學習(learn how to learn)。雖訂有統一的課程標準，但允許不同的教育型態出現，例如：特殊教育、馬來回教 madasahs 及基督教 San Yu Adventist (聖經取代公民與道德教育)。

新加坡把小學分為兩階段：小一至小四屬奠基期而小五至小六為定向期。前四年，側重基本的識字和運算技巧。英文佔總節數的 33%，母語為 27%，數學為 20%，而音樂、體育、美勞等則為 20%，細節請見表一。

表一

部定國立(national)小學的課程結構及各科目的授課節數

科目 (每節 30 分鐘)	每週各年級授課節數						
	小一	小二	小三	小四	小五及小六		
分流 (Streaming)					EM1	EM2	EM3
PSLE 的考試科目 (EM3 不考科學)							
英文 (English)	17	17	15	13	12	13	16
母語 (Mother tongue)	12	10	9	8	10	8	4
數學 (Mathematics)	7	9	11	11	9	10	13
科學 (Science)	0	0	3	4	5	5	3
PSLE 不考的科目(Non-Examination Subjects)							
道德教育 (Moral education)	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
社會科 (Social studies)	1	0	0	2	3	3	3
藝術與工藝 (Arts & Crafts)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
音樂 (Music)	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
體育 (Physical education)	3	3	3	3	2	2	2
健康教育 (Health education)	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
集會 (Assembly)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
全部課程節數	48	47	49	49	49	49	49

學生根據小六離校考試成績，修讀適合自己的中學課程(四年或五年)。中學的四種分流課程為：特選、快捷、普通學術(Academic)與普通工藝(Technical)。大部分學生上特選或快捷班，其餘修普通課程。小學階段屬 EM3 和 ME3 學生多就讀普通工藝班。每所學校提供兩種課程，學生可申請轉換。除了普通工藝中一及中二的英文為八堂外，其餘三種課程的英文節數為六 (見表二)。

表二

中一及中二學生每週的課表

中一及中二 (Lower Secondary) 所上科目	每週授課節數		
(每節為 35 至 40 分鐘)	特選/快捷	普通學術	普通工藝
考試科目(Examination Subjects)			
英文 (English)	6	6	8
母語 (特選修高級母語；普通工藝修基本母語)	6	6	3
數學 (Mathematics)	5	6	8
科學 (Science)	6	5	4
文學 (Literature)	2	2	
歷史 (History)	2	2	
地理 (Geography)	2	2	
藝術與工藝 (Art & Crafts)	2	2	
設計和科技和家政 (Home economics)	3	3	
電腦應用 (Computer applications)			4
Technical studies& home economics			4
不列入考試的科目(Non-examination subjects)			
社會科 (Social studies)			2
公民及道德教育 (Civics & Moral education)	2	2	2
體育(Physical education)	2	2	2
音樂 (Music)	1	1	
藝術與工藝 (Arts & Crafts)			2
集會(Assembly)	1	1	1
全部課程節數 (Total curriculum time)	40	40	40

特選、快捷及普通學術班的學生在中三時，若其小學離校考試成績為 top 10%，則可申請到教育部語言中心(http://www1.moe.edu.sg/moelc)修讀第三種語言(法文、德文、日文或馬來特別課程)。評審標準根據其 PSLE 英文與母語成績選拔。學生利用課餘時間每禮拜去教育部語言中心兩次，每次上課兩小時(下午 2:30 到 4:30 或下午 4:30 到 6:30)，不須額外付費。此外，中三學生依其組別 (Arts, Science, Commerce or Technical)選修科目，文學組及商學組都開有「英國文學」。

目前有十所 Special Assistance Plan (SAP)中學，其母語課程為「高級中文」。

三、分流教學及升學機制

新加坡小學相當注重語文訓練。早在 1979 年「吳慶瑞教育委員會報告書」就建議在小三結束、小學畢業及初中畢業實施三階段語言分流教學。學生於小三結束時，參加英文、母語與數學三科考試，依其能力就讀三種班別，智等學生讀雙語(Normal)班三年、中等學生上延長(Extended)雙語班五年及愚等(成績最差的20%)學生讀五年單一語言(Monolingual)班。此制度於 1980 年實施後，引起不少批評。反對者認為語文學習只是智力測驗的一部分，分流學習對語文程度不好，但理工方面有天賦的人極不公平。因此，於 1991 年提出「改革小學教育方案」。此次分流是在小三結束時，校方提供家長有關學生分流的建議。小四要升小五時，學校評估學生英文、母語及數學這三科的能力表現，然後按其成績分派適合其程度的課程--EM1, EM2, EM3。若有必要及人數足夠，可再多出第四個分流ME3。一般現象，大部份學生上 EM2 課程；且不同分流是可以轉換。

EM1： 成績特優，可以同時以英語和母語為第一語言，學習英語與高級母語。
EM2： 普通能力組，英語課程屬第一語言程度，而母語為第二語言。
EM3： 學基礎(foundation)英文及基本(basic)母語，強調母語聽說技能與閱讀。
ME3： 低成就者，學高級(higher)母語及基本英文，強調英文的聽說技能與閱讀，全部科目的教學語言為母語。

第二次分流是在小六升中一時，舉行全國性小學離校考試(PSLE)。EM1 學生考五科 (英語、母語、數學、科學及高級母語)，EM2 學生考四科 (英語、母語、數學及科學)，EM3 學生考三科 (基礎英語、基本母語和基礎數學)，ME3 學生考三科(基礎英語、基本母語和以母語出題的基礎數學)。PSLE 的英語考試分 Written, Reading, Oral 及 Listening，每種測驗各有不同的考試日期。其中 Oral 部分，還可以補考(Make-up)。試卷範例如表三所示。EM3 的題型基本上與 EM1 和 EM2 相同，其差異除了配分不同外，還有題數(試卷二的語言使用只有 35 題，而理解部分 30 題)與測試時間(一小時)。2002 年 PSLE 口試日期為 8 月 17 及 24 日，筆試時間為 10 月 7 日至 14 日(GCE 'O' Level 及 'A' Level 的語文測驗則在 11 月)。Students Care Service 設置 PSLE 免付費求助熱線，提供考生諮詢。另一項人性化措施是允許病童在醫院考聽力及筆試(Straits Times, 2001/10/14)。

表三

EM1 和 EM2 的英語試卷範例

考試	EM1 和 EM2 題型	題數	測試時間
試卷一	1) 功能(functional)寫作 2) 連續(continuous)寫作	兩部分	1 小時
試卷二	1)語言使用：文法、字彙、編修拼字/標點符號/文法、克漏字、句子合併	50 題	2 小時
	2)理解：information transfer (form, pictorial map, etc), graphic stimulus, 短文, 改良式克漏字	40 題	
說/聽	1)說：朗讀(1 段)、看圖說話(1 圖片)，有主試委員	每位考生約 5 分鐘	
	2)聽：聽力測驗	20 題選擇	30 分鐘

至於第三次分流是在中四結束時舉行。特選和快捷課程的畢業生可參加劍橋一般水準文憑考試 (GCE 'O' Level)，憑此成績申請進入二年制的大學先修初級學院或者三年制的多元技術學院。而普通課程的學生則於中四結束時，先參加劍橋普通水準文憑考試(GCE'N' Level)。有能力及想繼續升學者於中五時，再考 'O' Level。參加 'N' Level 與'O' Level 會考學生須考 7 至 8 科，特別資優者可考 9 科，英語與母語(含聽力)為其中必考科目。初級學院或多元技術學院畢業後，若想進大學須通過劍橋高級水準文憑考試 (GCE 'A' Level)。其英語文測驗為 General Paper，強調批判思考和寫作技巧。1999 年 7 月 13 日 副總理兼國防部長 Tony Tan 表示，將改變大學入學方式，不再只以 GEC A-Level 測驗為指標。新方案將於 2003 年實施，除了 A-Level 考試外，還有推理分析測試(類似 SAT)，Project Work 及課外活動等評量。上述分流除小四升小五由學校評估外，PSLE, 'N' Level, 'O' Level 及 'A' Level 等國家級考試皆由考試局負責。詳細內容可至其網站查詢 (http://www.moe.edu.sg/exams)。

伍、英語教育、課程與教材教法

1999 年 8 月 27 日，吳作棟在國慶集會演說中，把「加強中小學英語教育」列為教育改革之一(教育資料與研究，民 88)。他強調學校須教標準英語，來自非英語系家庭學童須學標準英語，並建構一個說標準英語的環境，以鼓勵外國大學在新加坡設立分院，成為亞洲高等教育中心。目前已有芝加哥大學商學院分校；麻省理工學院與新加坡大學及南洋理工大學亦合開博士後研究課程。

除了特殊教育(如智障、聽障、耳聾等)的學生免上母語課程外，新加坡的幼稚園早已實施雙語教育。幼稚園雖未納入正式教育體系，但學前(nursery 1 & 2, K1, K2)的啟蒙課程中，有英語與母語的教授。除了外國學制及國際學校外，新加坡有社區與私立幼稚園兩類。執政的人民行動黨社區基金會(PCF)所辦的幼兒院是

新加坡學前教育最大機構(市場佔有率約75%)，並設有幼兒教育學院從事師資培訓。幼稚園大多分上、下午校，業務歸教育部管轄。每天上課時數從2小時半到4小時都有。而 Ministry of Community Development and Sports (MCDS, http://www.mcds.gov.sg)所掌管的托兒(child-care)中心亦提供學前教育課程，學童留校時間可高達8小時。幼稚園與托兒中心每一年級的課程都包含發展語言及讀寫能力、基本數字概念、簡單的科學概念、創意及解決問題技能等。根據張淑長、蘇啟禎的調查(1997)，nursery, K1, K2 的英語和母語課程比例是 50:50，60:40 及 70:30。此外，幼兒班也強調電腦教學，以「寫作來學習閱讀」最出色，學生用拼音寫出短句或故事，然後再唸出句子。鑒於多所幼稚園仍強調學術技能，因此有專家呼籲應多透過遊戲來習得 (The Straits Times, Oct. 9, 2001)。

一、2001年新的英語課程大綱

課程規劃與發展部門所擬定的"English Language Syllabus 2001 for Primary and Secondary Schools" 共 146 頁，可到教育部網站(http://www1.moe.edu.sg)下載。它詳細列舉小一至中四(含各分流)具連貫性的聽說讀寫看(view)技能學習與評量等。教學大綱以學生為中心，採過程導向、融合讀寫和口語溝通(聽與說)，並強調持續漸進、情境學習及學生參與。學生成績評核含正式與非正式，除紙筆測驗外，有口頭報告及檔案評量(portfolio)。The Research and Testing Division 列有各階段的評量指引。而課程目標則要幫助學生以英文做有效溝通並成為終身學習者、創意思考者及問題解決者。其重點有三：語用、學習結果、與文類及文法。

(一) 語用(language use)：培養學生創意與批判性聽讀看各類資訊，而說、寫能根據目的、聽眾、情境及文化，以國際上所接受的標準英語在正式與非正式場合進行流利、合適與有效溝通。

(二) 學習結果：列出每兩年(如小一至小二、中三至中四)期望學生獲得的語言技巧、策略與態度。並允許老師彈性教學，以兼顧學生個別差異。

(三) 文類(text types)及文法：學習各類字彙與文法結構，讓學生聽讀看懂印刷、非印刷及電子文本等文章。Conventions of Grammar 及 Grammatical Features of Text Types 章節列有每兩年教師應教的參考內容。

二、教材

新加坡每十年修訂一次課程大綱(syllabus)及教科書。1980 年代為結構導向(structure-oriented)；1990 年代則為功能與溝通導向。2000 年新修訂的課程大綱繼續採用溝通教學法。2001 之前，小學普遍使用 EPB (Educational Publications Bureau)出版的 PETS (The Primary English Thematic Series)系列叢書。它是以主題為架構，除了書本外，亦有視聽輔助教材與 CD ROMS。現已開放教師自選教材，不再規定使用 PETS 各級教科書。已核准的坊間商業機構編製的教材名單(幼稚園至中學)可至 http://nsinte1.moe.edu.sg/project/db 查看。

三、小學的英語教學與教法

每一所小學設有英語及母語部門(department)。自 80 年代起，低年級(小一、小二)的座位排列採 U 字型。用 Big Book 讀故事、交換觀點 (Tan, 1998)，並採 Language Experience Approach(可以不用教科書)，讓學生分享(說出或寫出)其生活經驗(Ng, 1998)。每間教室有 library corner 提供閱讀資源，學生的作品也展示在牆上。這兩種教學法(Big Books 和 the Language Experience Approach)合稱為 REAP --The Reading and English Acquisition Program (Cheah, 1999)。除了正規的英語課外，許多學校也利用晨間(7:10~7:25)、休息、集會、聯課活動(CCA)、課外活動(ECA)或放學後的時間辦一些增潤(enrichment)課程及補強/輔導(Remedial/supplementary/support)班。另外，也鼓勵學生校外參賽，或透過英研社舉辦活動，或設「報紙角落」等來加強英語。綜合各小學所辦的非正式英文課程大抵如表四所列，其中以「閱讀」活動最多。

表四

小學所實施的非正式英語課程

音標	Phonetics, Special Phonics, Teaching of Phonics in P1
聽	TDS (Teacher Dictated Stories)
說	Speech and Drama, Pupils' Opinion Platform (POP); Play and Drama, Public Speaking, Show and Tell, Tell a Story A Day, Story Telling Competition,
讀	Extensive Reading Program, Poetry Appreciation, Read-Aloud , Read & Share, Reading Together, Silent Reading, USSR (Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading), Supplementary Reading Daily from Well-known Graded Readers, Buddy Reading, Guided Reading, Read A Book/Card A day, Master Reader,
寫	Creative writing, Diary Writing, Journal Writing, Poetry Writing, Written Expression Fortnight, Sharing of Creative Writing,
比賽遊戲	Choral Recitation, English Story Telling, Essay Writing, Mass English Quiz, Penmanship, Poetry Recitation, Poetry Writing, Riddles, Spelling, Word Games
活動	English Camp, Overseas Immersion Program, Project Work

四、對語言能力不足學童的輔導

新加坡政府對英文讀寫技能力不好的小一、小二學生提供 Learning Support Program (LSP)的支援。學校也開辦一些補救教學，例如(一) Reading Mothers 或 Reading Mums & Dads：為義工媽媽或父母協助識字與閱讀有困難的孩子。(二) Buddy Readers/Reading：高年級閱讀能力不錯的學生幫助小一及小二的學生學習。 (三) HOPE (Helping Our Pupils to Emerge as Independent Readers)：為低年級

閱讀能力弱的人所設。(四) WITS Project：解決閱讀緩慢學生的速度問題 (五)WRAP：Weak Readers Assistance Programme 等。

1999 年成立的 COMmunity & PArents In Support of Schools (COMPASS)鼓勵社區及家長參與教育。此外，每一族群皆有社區義工輔導課業較差的孩童。華人社區的 CDAC (Chinese Development Assistance Council)在全新加坡設有九個學生服務中心(http://www.cdac.org.sg)，為6 至 18 歲華人子弟開設中、英文作文、創意寫作、文法、漢語拼音、升學準備等增潤課程。印度社區的 SINDA (Singapore Indian Development Association, http://www.sinda.org.sg)設有"Read to Children"來幫助低收入家庭 4 至 8 歲閱讀有困難的孩子，每禮拜上課一小時，連續六個月；而 Reading Centers 是 Home Reading Program 的延伸，亦為 4 至 8 歲兒童設計每周一至二小時的課程，上課地點在社區中心、學校或印度人膜拜處。馬來回教社區 MENDAKI(http://www.mendaki.org.sg)的重心亦在兒童教育上。

五、資訊科技融入英語教學

新加坡的資訊教育是亞洲第一，英文課程(如光洋小學)亦規劃了電腦輔助學習及圖書館資訊技巧等，以提高語言學習效果。有些小學(如 New Town)的學生透過 Internet 與 E-mail 和加拿大及澳洲學生分享與討論。教育部網站也收錄中小學網路教育資源(Internet Educational Resources, http://www1.moe.edu.sg/ier)。為鼓勵資訊融入各科，早在 1997 年便展開 IT Masterplan 計劃。初期有 22 所中、小學參加，並於次年舉辦 "IT Open House" 向各校、社會大眾及家長展示成果。在英語科方面，有南華小學語言實驗室的示範教學、華僑中學研發的寫作軟體(The Threat of Arthur Bordum)及 Anderson 中學的學生利用電子劇場 Hollywood High 來學習。從 1997 到 2000 年為止，已有二萬名中、小學教師接受 30 至 50 小時的在職訓練(Ho et al, 2001)，學習如何使用不同的課程軟體(Author's Toolkit)、電子字典(Encarta, Word Web)、Inspiration、Word、Hot Potatoes 等來編輯教材、寫作、增加視覺效果及製作練習題等。

陸、問題與省思

新加坡教育部長張志賢 (Teo Chee Hean) 相信精通英文能帶動經濟發展，他曾引用 Political and Economic Risk Consultancy (Perc) 對亞洲外商所做的調查結果來說明，新加坡比香港更具競爭力的理由是新加坡人的英語比香港人好(The Straits Times, 2002/4/21)。雖然，瑞士國際管理發展研究所（International Institute for Management Development-IMD）所公布的 2002 年世界競爭力年鑑(World Competitiveness Yearbook)，新加坡由 2001 年的第 2 名降至第 5，然而，其托福成績仍居亞洲之冠。儘管如此，新加坡的雙語政策與教育制度亦有不少爭議之處。

一、削減性雙語政策亦或是母語、附加語並重之教學

有人認為雙語政策若要奏效，並維持種族和諧，就不應把母語降成單一科目來教，而是其他一半的課程也應改用母語授課(聯合早報網，2002/6/30)，並且呼籲當局改變對母語的態度，否則華文教學再怎麼改善也是徒然(聯合早報網，2002/6/25)。然而，新加坡政府對此建議的答覆仍是「不宜改變現有教學用語政策」。課程規劃與發展署署長章秀清表示：新加坡是個多元種族社會，族群和諧是社會穩定的基礎。在學校以英語作為教學語言，有助促進各族學生間的溝通與了解。如果學校有一半科目用不同的母語來教，將會減少不同族群學生間共同學習和互相交流的機會，也不易培養精通雙語的下一代(聯合早報網，2002/6/6)。

二、新加坡英語 vs. 標準英語

雖然當局致力推行國際標準英語(英國廣播公司所代表的 BBC English)，但不少團體提倡象徵年輕人自由的流行文化--新加坡英語。他們認為 Singlish 有其特色及社會功能，不必完全否定及廢止此最能表達民眾心聲的語言。電影製片 Collin 吳認為，新加坡英語融合多種文化，可培養青少年對國家的認同，與電視上俚言充斥的美國影集相比，更不應獨禁新加坡俚語 (星團體捍衛土產英語，2002)。他並架設網站，花錢拍攝以 Singlish 為主的電影。

三、分流太早及扭曲學生價值觀

新加坡孩童若要進美國或者國際學校須得到教育部核准(Liew, 2001/8/3)。有些父母為讓子女進入較好的小學，在孩子 10 月大時，就開始排隊申請入學(許慧伶，民 90)，要進明星小學就讀的競爭相當激烈(Ariff, 2001)。新加坡政府強調為顧及每個學生的能力差異，從小四開始便實施一連串的分流測驗。然而，學生在十歲便被分成上、中、下三等級，不但限定其出路，且此精英主義政策對家長亦造成不少壓力(聯合早報言論版，2002/6/22)。有一位把孩子送入名校的家長投報說，其小一孩子的華文、英文和數學三科總平均考 93 分，竟然排在全年級第 173 名，小二時就被編入 F 班 (A 班最好)。此種教育分流的結果讓學生被貼上不同的標籤，造成 EM3 孩童的自信心受損，而 EM1 和 EM2 源流的學生則要不斷面對殘酷競爭。曾有一項對四到六年級，年齡介於 10 到 12 歲小學生的調查發現，學童最害怕的前三名是「考試不及格」(36%)、「父母或監護人死去」(17%)及「無法考高分」(14%)。可見，新加坡小學生的課業壓力何其重(馬曉豔，2001)。

四、補習風氣盛而參考書大發利市

坊間有不少的私人語言學校及家教仲介公司。The British Council 的英語教學中心，共有 4 家分區機構，提供學前到初級學院等各階段的增潤課程。據估計各類家教的花費一年約為新幣三億兩千萬(The Straits Times, 2001/8/30)，甚至有不肖家教仲介機構要應徵者向家長謊報其學歷(The Straits Times, 2001/4/30)。最

近，PSB Academy 機構引進訓練及證書課程，以期推動家教服務業的專業化 (The Straits Times, 2002/4/15)。此外，新加坡父母認為 Assessment books 等參考書，在練習與複習方面比教科書好(The Straits Times, 2001/6/11)。光是大眾書局從 nursery 到 pre-university 的評量參考書就有一萬兩千種不同名稱。難怪，有小五、小六的孩子每周補習二天：一天(一小時半)增強英語能力，另一天(禮拜六下午 2 點至 5 點)則針對 PSLE 試題做模擬 (許慧伶，民 90)。

柒、結論

ETS 在 2001 年底所公布的托福成績顯示，台灣在亞洲 23 國中，排名倒數第四。台灣能否在六年內把英語從外語變成第二官方語言，實令人懷疑。畢竟，在歷史語言背景、生活環境與英語教育上，台灣與新加坡存在相當大的差異。

一、歷史語言背景與生活環境

台灣雖曾是殖民地，但未受過英國統治一百多年，且不是由多民族融合而成的國家。除了原住民外，不管是外省人、閩南人或客家人，皆是同文同種的華人。一般民眾除非從事外交觀光、跨國企業及學術交流，否則使用英語的機會很少。更不可能有 65.7%的小四、小五學生在家中使用英文(Tan,1998)的情形出現。

二、英語課程、評量與師資

新加坡於小學階段相當注重語文訓練。除了母語與公民道德外，其他科目的教學語言皆為英語。小一、小二每周就有 17 堂(每節 30 分鐘)英語課，而小一至小四的英文課程則佔總節數的 33%。英文程度較差的 EM3 小五、小六學生，節數就高達 16 堂 (EM1 只須上 12 節)。各小學所辦的非正式英文課程以閱讀活動最多(見表四)；對語言能力不足學童的輔導也偏向閱讀補救教學(如 Buddy Reading)。除了重視各類文體的閱讀技能外，小學離校考試 (PSLE)的英文評量涵蓋聽說讀寫四種，而寫作測驗又分功能與連續寫作兩種，考試時間高達一小時(見表三)。相形之下，台灣充其量只是把英語當成學科來教。教育部也在最近公布九十四年的國中基本學力測驗不考英聽。雖說九十一學年度實施的九年一貫國中小新課程將學習英語時間提早至小五(尚有師資不足現象)，但每週才上兩節課，且教學重點偏向聽與說，實在很難冀望在六年內將英文變成準官方語言。此外，為平衡城鄉英語落差於寒暑假所辦的(魔速)英語夏令營，亦是杯水車薪，無法細水長流。目前，台北市教育局正研擬打造校園英語學習環境的三年計畫，期望以城市外交方式，與加拿大、美國等姊妹市，交換師資，讓外籍教師協同國小英語教學(預估每二十班，有一位外籍教師)。而勞委會也修訂了就業服務法，開放外籍教師到公立中小學任教。但以上種種，仍掩蓋不住合格師資缺乏、外籍教師是否為萬靈丹及城鄉差距等問題。誠如國際文教處處長李振清指出，要將英語

列為第二官方語，需要很多配套措施，但最重要的是要先提升學生英語能力，再討論是否將英語列為第二官方語言 (張錦弘，民 91)。但是要如何增強學生英語能力，恐需學界再費思量與討論。

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Bilingual Policy and English Education in Singapore

Abstract

The ROC Administration has formulated the "Challenge 2008: The Six-year National Development Plan." Among the ten major areas of emphasis, "Cultivate Talent for the E-generation" is the first goal. Recognizing that English serves as an index of competitiveness and has helped Singapore to gain an edge, President Chen proposed designating English as Taiwan's second official language. Therefore, it is imperative to explore the language policy and English education implemented in post-colonial Singapore. This paper will address these issues in terms of sociolinguistics, bilingual policy, and English education. It is hoped that this research will help inspire further efforts to promote the English ability of the public here in Taiwan.

Key Words: Singapore, bilingual policy, English education

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中英翻譯與英文寫作能力：
試論翻譯考題之適用性

解志強

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摘要

本文的主要目的是探討中英翻譯考題在英文寫作能力鑑定上的適用性，並希望經由此項探討，帶動國內新的一波翻譯與外語教學的研究風氣。翻譯在外語教學界的地位雖然在溝通式教學法興起後嚴重被貶，然而許多測驗仍以翻譯作為評量外語能力的手段，翻譯和外語教學暗地裡仍如影隨形。近年來由於企業全球化興起，翻譯愈形重要，也帶動了翻譯科技的進步。字典及翻譯電子工具的普及，使外語學習進入另一種型態，學者必須重新思考翻譯在外語教學上的地位及利用方式。有研究指出，翻譯考題的確可以測出考生的外語能力。本文則進而探討翻譯與造句及作文的不同，希望能找出翻譯題型的特有潛力，並進一步思考可能的翻譯題目類型，以及翻譯考題的評分方式。最後，本文簡單的提及翻譯在外語教學上的回流效應問題，並指出研究翻譯考題及翻譯教學的重要性。

關鍵詞：母語　外語　翻譯題型　翻譯評分　回流效應

壹、前言

本文意在探討翻譯在外語教學上的應用問題，尤其是在語言測驗時，翻譯是否適合作為一種題型來測試考生的外語能力方面，作一些初步的探討。探討的動機主要是源起於數十年來，外語教育界對於翻譯的排斥所產生的壓力。自從1970年代溝通式教學法興起後，翻譯就和文法教學一樣，被排除於主流教學活動之外，甚至被許多從業者視之為有害無益之活動。然而近一二十年來，隨著經驗的累積以及研究的成果，研究者與從業者漸漸發現文法必須與溝通活動搭配，才能獲得最好的學習效果。而更晚近，隨著跨國企業的形成，翻譯突然鹹魚翻身，由工商業的大量翻譯需求，轉而帶動學界研究和教育訓練的風氣。在此一全球氣氛的形成，以及各式各樣電子翻譯工具的推波助瀾下，學生人手一翻譯機。翻譯對於外語教學是福是禍，已經到了非全面檢討不可的地步。然而本文並無意也無力作此全面性的探討，主要僅就翻譯是否適用於英語測驗之角度，做一個簡單的實驗及討論，希望能拋磚引玉，帶動更多有關翻譯與外語教學的研究和思考。

貳、 翻譯與外語學習

傳統文法翻譯教學法為人所詬病的地方，在於其過分強調語言結構的分析與規則的演練，而忽略了對語言意義與情境之關係的了解。代之而起的溝通式教學法，雖然矯正了語言脫離語境來學習的弊病，但是由於太過於強調意義與溝通，忽略了結構方面的學習，因而所教出的學生，雖然外語流利度較佳，但說寫時卻缺乏語言的精確度(Swain, 1985)。 繼之而起，有人開始主張外語學習必須“注意到”(*noticing*)語言結構，才能有效吸收語料(Schmidt, 1990)，此點與溝通式教學法的只重意義，不重形式大異其趣。也有越來越多的研究顯示，明確的教導語言(相對於無形的暴露於語言當中)，有助於外語學習(如 Long, 1983)。 因此，晚近以來的外語教科書，大部分採取折衷態度，一方面編入大量溝通式學習活動，一方面也以語境突顯意義的方式，編列一定份量的文法與詞彙教學。由於翻譯的第一步驟為分析來源語，因此外語教學對於結構的重視，與翻譯的起點相同，有助於推動翻譯與外語教學的研究。

近年來，一則由於翻譯行業的興起，一則由於語言工程科技的進步，對於外語學習者的影響之一，就是電子字典和翻譯工具的發明與普及。雖然機械翻譯和人類翻譯的品質還有一大段距離，然而這幾年來機械翻譯研究已略微調整方向，在能夠達到人類翻譯的品質之前，先以多樣化的應用為目標，使機械翻譯的實用功能得以充分發揮(見 Hutchins, 2001)。 這層效用，其實早已經為外語學習者所得知，長久以來，已經有許多學子，悄悄利用極為方便的網頁即時翻譯來作為學習外語的輔助工具(Yang & Lange, 1998)。可以預見的，機械翻譯的進步，將帶動未來翻譯與外語教學理論的研究風氣，極有可能造成翻譯在外語教學應用上的復甦。不過，新時代的翻譯教學活動，將和傳統的文法翻譯教學法有所不同。傳統的文法翻譯以外語譯入母語為主，經由翻譯的活動來分析和學習外語的文法結構。新時代的翻譯用於外語教學活動，應該是全方向且全方位的。亦即，翻譯的方向除了外語譯入母語外，更重視母語譯入外語。前者重視理解，後者加強表達。此外，除了文法與詞彙的翻譯，也不忽略語用和語境的轉換。

從語用的觀點來看，除了文化極端的差異面外，母語與外語所欲表達的概念，基本上都在人類的思考範疇裡面。理論上，除了因為文化差異而無法了解的概念外，人類所欲表達的種種思想，應該都可以用任何語言表達出來(Fromkin & Rodman, 1998: 26; Xiao, 1994)。這項假定在外語教學上的啟示是，雖然人類社會的語言和文化各有不同，但是從思想形成到思想表達的過程和效果，或許並沒有很大的差異。有的學者即主張外語教師並不需要特別擔心外語使用的問題。亦即，大部分語言都是文化中性的，只有很少比例的詞句會讓學生用錯場合而產生問題(Swan, 1985)。 如果這個看法正確，那麼翻譯這種活動對於外語的學習，在使用得當的情況下，應該會有所助益。首先，從翻譯的角度來看，對於翻譯來講最困難的地方之一，就是文化詞彙和特殊場合用語的轉換(見 Newmark, 1988: 94-103 的討論)。而如果 Swan 的看法正確，大部分的語言之間的大部分詞句，應該都可以很順暢的轉換，只有很少比例的用語會遇到因為使用場合不同而產生

的困難。換句話說，一個外語學習者，可以經由自己熟悉的母語表達過程，來體會外語與母語相同的情境之下，是否有對等的詞句可以適用。此種比對與推演的過程，不一定要稱之為"翻譯"，可將其視之為人腦解決問題的一個步驟，或者也可視為一種學習創建的活動。

事實上，九0年代已經有不少研究顯示，一個人的母語對於其外語的學習，會有選擇性的正面影響。特別是在閱讀的技巧上，母語的識字程度是有助於外語學習的(Pica, 1994)。也有學者指出，翻譯可以促進學生對於外語的精確認知，因為翻譯者會去注意到兩個語言間的微妙差異(Cook, 1998)。甚至有研究指出，先用母語寫成，再翻譯成外語的學生作文，和直接用外語寫作的學生作文，並沒有品質上的差異(見 Auerbach, 1993)。不過，或許由於以往的翻譯文法教學法所受的打擊太深，也由於溝通式教學法的確有它的興盛理由，大部分人對於翻譯作為外語教學法，仍舊持保守的態度，認為翻譯教學強調形式而忽略含意(如 Buck, 1992)。因此，翻譯要重新進入外語教學市場，恐怕必須強調它的溝通層面，以便和溝通式教學法能夠融合應用(Schjoldager, 2001)。事實上，新時代的翻譯學研究與翻譯實務，正是朝向翻譯者為溝通的媒介，而不是機械的語言形式轉換者(Hatim & Mason, 1997, Hutchins, 2001)，因此，沒有理由不能相信，翻譯在溝通與形式並重的新世代外語教學裡，可以扮演一個有份量的角色。

參、 翻譯與外語測驗

翻譯用來作為外語測驗的一種題型，已經有很長久的歷史，在世界各國均有，雖然文法翻譯教學法式微，但是翻譯仍不斷被採用來作為測驗的工具。例如日本的某些大學入學考試(Watanabe, 1996)，以及美國的許多必修外語的研究所課程，仍然規定必須以翻譯的方式通過外語的資格考[1]。由此可見，在實務上，用翻譯來測驗外語能力，應有其存在的價值。

翻譯是否真的能夠測試出考生的外語能力呢？針對翻譯試題信度和效度的研究並不多，但是的確有幾項研究明確顯示翻譯試題的可信度，其中之一是 Buck (1992)的研究。Buck 在該文中坦白承認，該項研究原本想要說服外語教師，放棄以翻譯為測驗的方法，而採用較為溝通式的測驗法。Buck 做了兩個實驗，第一個實驗以翻譯和克漏字及選擇題同時給 121 個主修英語的日本大專學生做，再把翻譯答案給七個不同的老師改[2]。結果不但發現七個評分老師，在未給予任何評分標準的情況下，統計數據顯示眾老師所採用的評分標準(心目中的那把尺)，其實是相同的。再者，Buck 的統計數據也顯示，翻譯試題和其他兩種測驗方式用來區分學生程度的能力，也是相同的。這兩種數據顯示，在 Buck 的實驗情況下，

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[1] 見以下美國夏威夷大學與克拉荷馬州立大學的網頁：
http://www.ling.hawaii.edu/program.htm#masters 和
http://www.okstate.edu/artsci/english/tesl/main_campus/HTML/phd_tesl.html.

[2] 翻譯題目為英翻日，共有三個簡短英文段落為語境，每段落選出兩個句子給學生翻譯，一共六句。

翻譯題目的信度和效度都是不錯的。Buck 的第二項實驗是讓 400 個日本大學生做英語閱讀和聽力測驗，以問答、選擇、填充、翻譯等四種方式，來測學生的理解能力。結果發現，翻譯試題和其他常用的試題種類一樣，有鑑別不同學生程度的能力。Buck 不得不承認，翻譯試題的確有能力測出它想要檢測的考生外語能力。

由於 Buck 的實驗均為外語譯入母語，此種翻譯題目側重外語的理解，考生若能理解外語的句子，則翻譯成熟悉的母語較不困難。若要用翻譯檢測考生的外語寫作能力，則可以同時讓考生用外語作文和母外翻譯，如果發現翻譯和作文得分相關，才能相信翻譯和作文題目一樣，可以測出考生的外文寫作能力[3]。

作者最近曾做一小小實驗，有 A 和 B 兩班國內大一英文學生，人數分別為 22 和 18 人，兩班同學分別撰寫作文和翻譯各一篇。其中 A 班由一位老師批改，B 由兩位老師批改，其分數如附錄所示。此實驗或許因樣本太少，以人數較多的 A 班來講，必須要將翻譯和作文得分都很高的幾位剔除後，剩下同學的翻譯和作文分數才有較高的相關現象。由於樣本太少，本文不擬就此發揮，不過在下一節還會利用這個實驗的數據，談到翻譯題目難易的問題[4]。

肆、 翻譯與其他題型比較

假設翻譯和作文對於考生的外語寫作能力，都具有同等的檢測能力。那麼，為何要考翻譯？採用翻譯題型有什麼其他題型所沒有的優點？本節嘗試比較翻譯題型和作文及造句題型的不同。

一、翻譯和造句的不同:

考英語造句和考單句翻譯的最明顯不同點，在於其自由發揮的程度。因為翻譯的題目固定，所以其限制比造句為大，這點對於所檢測的內容和評分的難易均有影響。例如考以 *express* 來造一個英文句子，和考"他不善於表達自己的情感"的英語翻譯，有何不同？差異之一是，造句時考生得以運用任何他最有把握的字和片語以及文法結構，來作成一個較不容易出錯的句子，考生甚至不必了解他所寫的句子到底表達了什麼概念，因為評分者並沒有任何的意識形態要求，只看句子形式正確與否。考生認為他的句子所表達的意義，和考官所理解到的意義，不一定是相同的。因此給單字造英文句子這種方式，並不一定能檢測出考生的真正外語編碼能力。反之，翻譯則在固定的意義範圍內，考驗學生對於此一概念的外語表達方式，強迫學生接受考試機構認為值得測試的結構與指定概念的對應能

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[3] 張武昌教授指出，如果翻譯和作文相關數值很高，亦即兩者一樣能夠測出考生寫作能力，那為何還要加考翻譯?應該考作文即已足夠。的確，寫作能力測驗當然不會只考翻譯而不考作文。但是，如果考了作文又加上翻譯試題，則翻譯試題對於測試考生寫作實力有什麼貢獻，必須有所釐清。針對此點，本文在肆之二提出了一點淺見。

[4] 感謝游春琪小姐在統計方面的指導。

力。就這個功能來講，翻譯題目類似單字或片語填充題的擴大。跟填充題比起來，單句翻譯給學生較多的發揮餘地，而跟造句比起來，單句翻譯則更有效的限制測試範圍。對於測驗考生的外語寫作能力，翻譯題目應該有其獨特的鑑別作用。

二、翻譯和作文的不同：

英文作文為考驗學生以外語自由表達意念的能力，通常就其文章內容，修辭及文法等來評定作文的好壞。而中譯英整篇翻譯則考驗學生在母語所提示的固定意念結構下，如何以外語來表達同樣的概念組合。產品同樣是一篇英文文章，同樣用來檢測英文寫作能力，中英翻譯和英文作文有何不同呢？作文除了測試考生的外語能力外，能否得高分也端賴考生是否有足夠的經驗和智慧來構思一篇言之有物的文章，這點不論就母語或外語而言，是相同的。亦即，其所測試的構思能力，並非針對外語，而是以人生經驗與表達能力等為基礎。一位對英文文法，英語文化與英文習慣用法均很了解的考生，或許因為缺乏人生經驗，觀念偏差，或"跨語言"的先天文筆不佳等特性，而無法寫出一篇能夠反映其外語能力的作文。相反的，整篇翻譯則沒有這種限制。翻譯不需要學生從"一無所有"的情況下開始構思，翻譯給予考生完整的概念素材，考生只要從他的外語能力當中，尋找對應的素材， 根據其對外語的用字、句法、和篇章能力加以整體佈局即可。

前文提到 A 班和 B 班的翻譯作文實驗，這兩班的作文題目都是 Memorable Day，而兩班翻譯題目則不相同。從這個小實驗看起來，似乎英文作文比中英翻譯較容易得高分。我們懷疑，就同一個批改者而言，當翻譯題目的長度或難度達到某個限度的時候，大多數的考生就會呈現作文分數優於翻譯分數的現象。這很有趣但也不令人特別意外，因為作文本來就是自由發揮的題目，而翻譯題目可以經由原文的結構，意義和長度來控制翻譯的難易度。筆者所做的實驗，在兩組的大一新生當中，英文作文題目是固定的，而翻譯的題目不同。A 班的翻譯題目是：

> 出院至今，已經七年了。多年來，很想寫一寫住院過程的回顧，但是卻一直提不起勇氣，而今，我想是誠實面對過去的自己的時候了，也許我過去的經歷，對許多人來說很不可思議，但我卻是那樣真真實實地活過了。我希望在我還活著的時候，能用我自己的方式來說我的故事，能坦然自在地告訴他人："我就是這樣的一個人，這就是我所做過的一切。" 我終於準備好和別人來分享我的故事了。

而 B 班的翻譯題目則是：

> 人生總有許多茫然的時刻，當生活遇到重大變故、熟悉的世界瓦解、生命突然失去了依靠，從強迫性失業、罹患重大疾病，到天災、人禍造成生命財產損失時，有人就此陷落，有人含淚前行，更有人因此找到生命的救贖。在夜深人靜、午夜夢迴時，那些再度站起來的生命勇者，究竟靠什麼力量平復那錐心刺骨的痛楚？
>
> 歲末將屆，有人煩憂國事，有人為錢所困，有人三不五時算命，焦慮隨時可能會發生大小災害。若你因為種種原因難以安心，不妨看看達賴喇嘛對信徒的開示：「能解決的事不用去擔心，不能解決的事擔心也沒用。」活在當下，延伸小我，快樂就在你身邊！

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A 班的作文平均分數為 6.0，翻譯平均分數為 5.6，相差不多。但是 B 班的作文平均 6.1，則比翻譯分數 3.9 高很多。這可能是因為翻譯長度，或者是原文困難度的影響。使人猜測，中英翻譯的得分，亦即學生的能力表現，似乎可以經由長度和困難度這兩個因素來控制，這是英文作文所不能達到的[5]。

以 B 班全體學生的翻譯和作文平均分數來看，兩位參與評分的老師所給予的成績，均為作文分數高於翻譯。可能原因除了翻譯題目較長較難外，翻譯分數比作文低，另一個可能是涉及寫作"內容"的問題。因為英文作文只有題目是固定的，考生只要具有足夠的人生經驗來構思，也稍微具有母語的寫作能力，在這兩種力量的輔助之下，考生似乎較能把他的外語能力"發揮到極限"。另一方面，就評分者而言，也較可能受其內容所影響，而"原諒"較不影響意義的文法錯誤。但是翻譯則不然。對於評分者來講，翻譯的原文已經"規定"了考生所要表達的意義是什麼。考生被迫用自己僅有的外語資源來表達"別人的想法"。這兩種編碼過程有何不同，及其影響如何，可能需要從心理語言學的角度深入研究才能有所了解。不過，從結果看來，似乎從既有的概念尋找表達的途徑(翻譯)，比自己衍生概念再加以表達(作文)困難，因此所產生的結果較差。

綜上所述，關於翻譯和作文對考生能力發揮這點，我們所猜測的兩種現象，剛好是對立的。一方面翻譯對於考生來講，好像比作文容易寫，因為有翻譯有現成的概念可以取用，不必像作文那樣從無開始。但是另一方面，正因為翻譯強迫考生在固定的意義範圍內運作，寫作模式不同，也可能使考生失去發揮正常寫作能力的機會。(當然，考生之間的偏好和擅長也有差異)。

另有一個值得注意的現象，經過統計分析發現，上述實驗 A 班學生在翻譯試題當中所使用的字彙，比在作文當中所使用的字彙要高階[6]。這大概是因為外語教學中所謂迴避(*avoidance*)的現象 – 即在作文當中，考生可以選擇不使用沒把握的辭彙或結構，以免犯錯。因為翻譯題目指定辭彙，考生無法迴避，被迫使用較不熟悉的字彙。可能的結果是選字不當，或者配套用詞或結構不適合，形成笨拙譯文，而降低了翻譯的分數。因此，在特定情況下，翻譯似乎比作文能夠看出考生的外語編碼能力。不過，顯然要經過精確的實驗，才能進一步了解翻譯題目與寫作能力之間控制的因素為何，以及它們在外語學習和測驗上的意義為何。另一方面，則須參照個別測驗的目的和能力指標，才能據以設計適合的翻譯題目。

伍、 翻譯題目類型

翻譯的題型，可以從最簡單的單字翻譯、片語翻譯、到整句翻譯、到最長的整段翻譯。在整句翻譯之前的階段，可以是有語境的，也可以是脫離語境的，視測驗的用途而定。如果是考閱讀與理解，亦即從外語譯入母語，則通常需要提供前後文，以便測出需要的閱讀能力。而在測驗寫作能力時，有無語境，應該是

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[5] 作文雖然也可以限制字數，不過這和翻譯以長度來控制試題的難易度似乎意義不同。另一方面，作文也很難限制考生在某一個字彙或句型範圍內寫作。

[6] 感謝游春琪小姐幫忙分析樣本及提供此一有用的觀察。

看所測的是句子以內的局部能力，或是句子以外的篇章能力而定。以下提出一些可能的翻譯題型，分為單句及整段翻譯兩種。在每個翻譯題目之下，另附上參考解答[7]，以及所測試能力或可能評分指標。

一、單句翻譯

(一) 測試文法

例一、 王先生每天喝兩杯茶。

Mr. Wang drinks two cups of tea each day.

(考驗英文現在式的使用，及物質名詞的數法)

例二、 雞吃虫，馬吃草。

Chickens eat worms; horses eat grass.

(考驗現在時式，名詞的種類和數，以及對等連接詞或標點符號的使用)

例三、 公車上的乘客，一直盯著車門的那位小姐看。

The passengers on the bus kept staring at the lady at the door.

(考介系詞片語的結構，及 keep+V-ing 和 stare at 或 look at 文法搭配結構)

(二) 測試選詞

例一、 端午節很多人吃粽子。

Many people eat zongzi/ rice dumplings on the Dragon Festival.

(考中國文化字彙的通用英文說法)

例二、 萬聖節學校會有化裝舞會

There will be a masquerade on Halloween in school.

(考西洋文化特有詞彙)

例三、 校長在週會時誇獎工友。

The head teacher praised the janitor in the weekly assembly.

(考驗中文常用到，但其最佳對應英文並非直譯可得，即可能並不為本地學生所熟知的詞彙)

(三) 測試搭配[8]

例一、 他二話不說就打開電視。

He turned on the TV without saying a word.

(考兩個英文常用的動詞與受詞搭配)

例二、 警報響了，消防隊員奪門而出，跳上救火車。

The alarm went off. The fire squad rushed out of the door and jumped onto the fire engines.

(考主詞動詞搭配，以及動詞與介系詞的文法搭配)

例三、 經理應該為滑落的業績承擔責任。

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[7] 筆者英文造詣有限，所附的英文翻譯僅供參考，並非最好答案。

[8] 參考解志強(2002)，可從 http://mx.nthu.edu.tw/~ccshei 網頁的'研究'連結進入下載。

The manager should assume responsibility for the plummeting business.
(考一個動詞受詞搭配及一個形容詞名詞搭配)

(四) 測試慣用句型

例一、 毫無疑問，他把妳當作救星。
It is no doubt that he looks on you as his saviour.
(考 it is no doubt that 套裝句型及 look on … as 的動詞片語)

例二、 這狗看起來好像要搖尾巴了。
It looks as if the dog is going to wag its tail.
(考 it looks as if 這個句型，及 wag tail 這個動詞受詞搭配)

例三、 沒有人知道這到底是福是禍。
Nobody knows whether it is a blessing or a misfortune.
(考 nobody knows whether 句型及一個常用英文複合名詞片語)

二、 段落翻譯

例一、 出院至今，已經七年了。多年來，很想寫一寫住院過程的回顧，但是卻一直提不起勇氣。而今，我想是誠實面對過去的自己的時候了。
Seven years have elapsed since I was discharged from the hospital. Although I have intended to record my days of being hospitalised, I have not mustered enough courage to do so. Now, I think it's a good moment for me to face the past in an honest fashion.
(可能評分重點：是否所有原文訊息均精確傳達？譯文讀起來多像真正英語的文章？文法、選詞、及轉接上有多少錯誤？)

例二、 曾經有一次，我在病房因為聯絡不到母親，情緒很不穩定，拿著剪刀爬到衣櫃上，不願意讓任何人接近我。
Once I became emotionally unstable in the ward because I could not get to my mother by phone. I grabbed a pair of scissors and climbed on top of a closet, refusing to let anyone approach me.
(可能評分重點：同例一)

以上所提出的可能翻譯題型，有的較容易評分(答案彈性較小的，例如節日名稱的翻譯)，有的評分可能較有爭議(例如考慣用句型的，對於與最佳答案不符的其他形式，則不容易判斷優劣)。因為翻譯試題較少有相關研究報導，各種考題的適用性如何，仍應該從實際經驗中分析判定。

陸、 翻譯評分

漢英翻譯和英漢翻譯的批改方向不同。英漢翻譯主要用來考英文閱讀能力，除非為了兼試考生的中文寫作能力，否則批改時只要著重英文原文難以理解的部分，是否適當譯出即可，對於中文譯文的優美與否，以測驗閱讀的角度來看，應當不必理會。但是漢英翻譯則不同，因為基本上測試的對象為以中文為母語的學

生，因此中文原文的理解部分，應當沒有困難[9]。所以主要閱卷的重點，為英文譯文的流利、正確與否。問題是英文譯文的好壞要如何評定？除了明顯的文法字彙等的錯誤外，對於同樣流利而很少錯誤的譯文，需不需要有更進一步的判別標準？當然，以翻譯來考英文寫作能力的評分原則，和真正評論翻譯作品的好壞原則，應該是有所不同的。也就是說，我們希望不需要去應付像“難道學英語也要學翻譯技巧嗎”這種問題。畢竟我們想要檢測的是考生英文寫作的能力，而不是考生翻譯的經驗和技巧。問題是，考生的譯文當中，哪些是外語能力的發揮，哪些是翻譯技巧的貢獻，可能不是那麼容易區分[10]。幸好，一般高中大學程度的本地生，其英文造詣應該很少達到那麼運用自如，到可以發揮各種翻譯技巧的程度。如果可以接受這點，我們在批改英文譯文時，似乎不必擔心翻譯技巧的問題，只要去看譯文的精確度和品質就可以了。

當然，以翻譯來考英文寫作能力的評分原則，和真正評論翻譯作品的好壞原則，應該是有所不同的。也就是說，我們希望不需要去應付像“難道學英語也要學翻譯技巧嗎”這種問題。畢竟我們想要檢測的是考生英文寫作的能力，而不是考生翻譯的經驗和技巧。問題是，考生的譯文當中，哪些是外語能力的發揮，哪些是翻譯技巧的貢獻，可能不是那麼容易區分[11]。幸好，一般高中大學程度的本地生，其英文造詣應該很少達到那麼運用自如，到可以發揮各種翻譯技巧的程度。如果可以接受這點，我們在批改英文譯文時，似乎不必擔心翻譯技巧的問題，只要去看譯文的精確度和品質就可以了。

另外一點就是，通常實務上的翻譯，必須考慮到“讀者”和“文體”的問題(參見Neubert, 1997: 12-15)。也就是說，良好的翻譯，不只考慮到結構和意義上的對應，並且考慮到原文作者想要的讀者與閱讀場合，和譯文的讀者和場合不同的情形。上乘的翻譯者，必須要在不同的原文與譯文不同的閱讀場合與讀者之間，就譯文的文體，作適當的轉換，如此才能更精確表達原文作者的意思。但是，這種情形在以翻譯測試一般外語寫作能力的場合，是不適用的。因為考試並不是一個真正的溝通場合，而考生寫給考官看的譯文，通常並不是執行某種溝通功能，而是提供評鑑用。因此，我們在評分翻譯試卷的時候，似乎必須在由作文評鑑朝向翻譯評鑑的路線上，求得某一個立足點，而不是一昧的往翻譯評鑑的目標前進。

即使在翻譯界，翻譯評鑑也是一個很棘手的問題。比較實際可行的方法，其實和評英文作文差不多，亦即看譯文有無錯誤，以及看文筆是否流暢有如當地人所寫，而多出來的一項就是翻譯獨有的 – 看原文的資訊是否被完整的轉達。我們在第四節提到過翻譯評分的問題，我們說到翻譯題目的調整到達某一種程度，它的分數對於考生就較難掌握。這和作文主要的區別，就在譯文是否能有效傳達原文的訊息。因此，翻譯的評分，應該是譯文的“健全”與原文的“轉達”並重。任何一位有資格的評分老師，在給予翻譯評分的時候，應該都會考慮到這兩個層

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[9] 除非出題者為了兼考國文程度或其他理由，而出文言文考題來讓考生翻成英文。

[10] 我們指的是加字減詞，詞類轉換，成語求切等文字技巧，見劉宓慶(1997)。

[11] 我們指的是加字減詞，詞類轉換，成語求切等文字技巧，見劉宓慶(1997)。

面。不會只看譯文是否流利，不管內容傳遞的百分比。也不會只看資訊是否詳實傳達，不顧行文是否順暢。越短篇的翻譯，這兩個因素應該越好控制，評分標準也越容易制定。下表是以長篇翻譯為對象而作的一個可能評分標準表(改編自Waddington, 2001)。

等級	資訊傳達	分數	譯文品質	分數
甲	原文資訊完整轉達	5	譯文流暢有如原文作品	5
乙	原文資訊幾乎完整轉達，有省略部分，但沒有轉達錯誤	4	譯文流利，有少許文法，選詞，慣用語，或拼字錯誤	4
丙	原文資訊達大部分完整轉達，有部分轉達錯誤	3	部分譯文順暢，部分譯文顯出翻譯腔，有少許錯誤	3
丁	原文資訊只有部分轉達，有相當多省略或錯誤轉達	2	大部分譯文顯出翻譯腔。有一些文法及用詞錯誤	2
戊	原文資訊只有極小部分正確轉達，有嚴重錯誤影響整體資訊傳達	1	譯文文法不通，窒礙難讀，用詞拼字有相當多錯誤	1

如此，評分者可以估計考生作品在資訊傳達方面是屬於哪個等級，在譯文品質方面是屬於哪個等級，再將兩個分數加總即可，不必去個別計算錯誤的種類和扣分細節，似乎是相當方便可行的一種整體性(*holistic*)評分標準。從這個表看起來，翻譯的評分有可能比作文客觀，因為資訊傳達的部分是可以量化的，這應該是翻譯題型優於作文的其中一點。

柒、 回流效應

有許多人對翻譯測驗存有疑慮，原因之一是它所產生的回流效應(*washback effect*)，可能會使外語教學再淪回舊式文法翻譯教學法的老路(Buck, 1992)。對於此一論點，有些實證研究已經指出，回流效應其實是一種非常複雜的現象，和個別老師的教育背景和信念，以及許多錯綜複雜的環境因素均有關係，必須嚴密而有計劃的觀察，不能夠全靠臆測來加以認定(Wall & Alderson, 1993, Watanabe, 1996)。香港的一個針對回流效應的研究顯示，回流表現在各種教學的相關層面，而回流時各個層面(教科書、課程、學校測驗方式、教學方法等)所受到的影響也有快慢和深淺之分，有些則很難以看出有沒有影響(Cheng, 1997)。例如大學考試如果從沒有翻譯試題改成有翻譯試題，則反應最快的大概是應付考試的出版商和補習界，反應居中的可能是未來的考生，反應較慢或根本不會有反應的，應該是學校教育體系。假如某教育體系或其中的個別教師有堅強信念，認為翻譯試題不需要特別講授翻譯技巧或做翻譯練習，只要持續進行正常英語教育(字彙、片語、文法、作文、閱讀…)，就足夠應付翻譯考題了(事實上或許也是如此)，則翻譯考題不必然會有不良的影響。即使很多人轉而研究翻譯，以翻譯帶動外語教學，只

要方法正確，且不捨本逐末，為了應付翻譯考題而放棄有效的溝通式教學活動，則其影響並不盡然是負面的。反而，如本文一開始所主張，由於翻譯工具日漸強大和普及，更多的觀察和研究以使其發揮最大效用，是有必要的。而回流現象需要長期的觀察和精細的研究，在未獲得明確證據之前，對於翻譯考題的回流效應，或許不應預設負面的結果與持過於悲觀的看法。

捌、 結論

本文主要是就翻譯考題的所涉及的相關層面做一個粗略的探討。由於數十年來，翻譯在英語教學界是被邊緣化的一種活動，翻譯測驗題型或許有實務上的價值，卻總在“暗地中”進行，很少被拿到檯面上來討論，也缺少有系統的研究。本文僅就外語教學理論和測驗實務的角度來討論翻譯考題。從既有的少數理論和實證研究來看，翻譯試題似乎頗有可信度，翻譯在英語教學上，也似乎有可以發揮的空間。針對英文寫作能力的測試，本文嘗試分析了翻譯和作文試題的不同，並提出一些翻譯例題，檢討其評分方式。基本上，作者雖然相信中英翻譯用來測試英文寫作能力是可行的，值得測試和探討。不過，翻譯題型的控制變數為何，仍有待進一步的研究，才能精確測出考生的寫作能力，及符合測驗的目標。另外，翻譯試題對於英語教學的回流效果如何，也是必須長期觀察的一個課題。總之，翻譯一直都是存在的，也一直被英語教學界多多少少的利用著。隨著時代的變遷，全球化的效果，翻譯科技精進了，也提供了更多更強的可供外語學習的翻譯工具。英語教學者必須正視翻譯的問題，多加研究，有益於教學或學習的部分，就儘量取汲，使翻譯發揮最大的效用。而無益甚至有害的部分，則可以明確釐清，減輕其負面效果。

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附錄[12]

一、A 班成績表

學生代號	翻譯 ccs	作文 ccs
1	5	4
2	3	7
3	7	6
4	7	6
5	6	7
6	5	4
7	3	8
8	7	7
9	7	6
10	6	8
11	7	7
12	7	9
13	6	4
14	4	1
15	2	6
16	7	8
17	3	2
18	8	5
19	8	9
20	5	7
21	7	4
22	3	7
平均 (n=22)	5.59	6.00

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[12] 評分欄的英文字母註記為不同評分老師的英文譯名縮寫。

二、B班成績表

學生	翻譯ccs	作文ccs	翻譯ymg	作文ymg
1	4	5	4	5
2	6	5	6	8
3	缺	5	缺	4
4	5	8	6	9
5	2	6	5	6
6	3	7	6	7
7	7	8	8	9
8	6	5	6	5
9	5	6	7	7
10	2	5	8	9
11	5	5	5	6
12	5	6	6	7
13	2	6	3	8
14	3	6	4	8
15	5	5	6	7
16	3	6	5	8
17	5	7	4	7
18	缺	8	缺	6
平均 (n=18)	4.25	6.06	5.56	7.00

Chinese-English Translation and English Writing Ability: On the Suitability of Translation Tests

Abstract

The aim of this article is to explore the suitability of using translation as a means for testing English writing ability, hoping to open a new page of discussion on the use of translation in foreign language instruction in a general sense. Although translation was largely abandoned as a means for teaching a foreign language with the advent of communicative language teaching, it has never ceased being active in the foreign language testing domain. In more recent years, globalization brought about the necessity to localize commercial documents, and translation as a profession is enjoying an unexpected boom. The fast advance in translation technologies is a direct result. Dictionaries and automatic translation software are becoming more powerful and keenly sought after by foreign language learners. Translation is gradually reclaiming its place in foreign language instruction. This article advances the idea that translation is a viable way for testing foreign language proficiency. It also points out how translation tests differ from similar tests like composition and sentence making. Several types of translation questions are proposed, and the evaluation methods discussed. While concentrating on the usability of translation in foreign language testing, the ultimate aim of the article is to call for more discussion on the use of translation in foreign language teaching.

Key Words: mother tongue, foreign language, translation questions, translation evaluation, washback effect

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章類分析與學術英文教學：
台灣博士生的摘要改進問題[1]

劉賢軒

清華大學

摘要

史維爾(Swales, 1981)的開拓性研究已經引發相當多人從事探討學術論文的結構問題。海仁德(Hyland, 2000)的研究顯示學術期刊論文的結構不同可能反映領域的文化和價值觀的差異。本文試圖探討這類結構不同也可能因論文作者的寫作經驗而有差別。我們是要觀察台灣博士生所寫學術期刊論文「摘要」的結構特色。我們的語料分別取自五十篇本地生命科學系博士生期刊論文及三十篇相關領域的外籍專家論文。我們發現，幾乎所有八十篇語料含有「結果」與「結論」，可視為必用言步(obligatory moves)。就篇數而言，「背景」、「目的」及「方法」在博士生語料中的出現率分別為 48%、52%和 30%，遠低於外籍專家語料的 80%、90%和 60%。就篇幅而言，博士生花了高比例的篇幅(58%)去報導他們的研究結果，用 20%的篇幅說明結論，用在其他言步者都少於 10%。博士生作者認為論文摘要的主要目的就是呈現實驗結果。外籍專家比較兼顧其他各言步在論文摘要中的地位。最後，我們向台灣博士生提出數點建議，或許能幫助他們改進摘要寫作。

關鍵詞：章類分析 學術期刊摘要 學術英文教學

壹、前言

在應用語言學界，章類(genres)有其獨特的定義。根據史維爾(Swales,1981: 10)的看法，「章類」是指「格式化」的溝通事件，其目標為相關圈內人士所熟知。馬丁(Martin, 1984)認為，在參與者相同文化背景之下，按照習俗化步驟完成某項目標明確的溝通活動，稱為「章類」。在學術章類分析(analysis of academic genres)方面，史維爾(Swales,1981)首先對 48 篇學術期刊論文的「前言」(introduction)加以分析，認為這個章節由四個言步(moves)構成：言步一(Move One)：建立議題領

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[1] 本文根據國科會專題計畫（NSC89-2411-H-007-049）的部分結果撰寫而成。

域(Establishing the field)；言步二(Move Two)：評論相關文獻(Summarizing previous research)；言步三(Move Three)：指出待決問題(Preparing for present research)；言步四(Move Four)：介紹目前研究(Introducing present research)[2]。史維爾的這項研究已經成為「學術章類分析」的經典之作。其他研究者利用史維爾的構想，分析不同學術領域的期刊「前言」部分(例如 Crookes, 1984)。另外也有研究者發展一套理論模式來分析學術期刊論文的「討論」部分。例如，Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988)分別以生物學碩士論文的「討論」及灌溉學會議論文的相當部分為語料，探討其言步結構。

雖然有關學術論文寫作的手冊通常都會提到摘要寫作的注意事項，但是大多數的建議都很含糊，對非英語為母語的學生幫助有限；因此，有些研究者試圖探討學術論文摘要的屬性。由於他們從不同角度分析這類篇章，所以研究結果顯得變化多端，有人認為學術論文摘要像是「全文代表」(Bazerman, 1984: 58)、像是「全文精華」(Swales, 1990: 179)、像是「全文結晶」(Salager-Mayer, 1990: 367)、像是「全文概要」(Kaplan et al., 1994: 405)等等。只有海仁德(Hyland, 2000)試圖從章類分析的角度探討學術論文摘要的結構特性。海仁德試圖從社會及文化建構的觀點來說明這類摘要所代表的語言溝通。從寫作者角度看，摘要所用到的言步能夠讓作者建構專業形象，展現相關的專業背景及推理能力；從讀者角度看，這些言步提供讀者概略理解方向，激起專業認同及參與溝通的意願。作者的預期吻合讀者的期待是因為雙方所面對的是個習俗化的溝通事件(conventionalized communicative event)。海仁德(Hyland, 2000)的分析結果顯示學術領域的文化差異可以從篇章結構的特性看得出來。然而，他的研究並未觸及學術經歷資淺的博士生所寫論文摘要的結構問題，這也說明本文研究焦點的合理性。

在台灣，學術英文的重要性已經受到相當重視(例如：姚崇昆, 1993, 1999；郭志華, 1997, 1999；張玉蓮, 1996；周碩貴, 1997, 1998；楊育芬, 1998; 劉賢軒, 2000, 2001)，而且也有專書出版(例如姚崇昆, 1996)。根據筆者從事科技英文寫作教學以及多年來的觀察，發現台灣地區碩士班或博士班的學生使用英文撰寫論文時，往往不能很確定論文的「摘要」部分應該討論些甚麼，也不確定該如何安排相關訊息，以求符合期刊寫作的傳統習俗。有鑑於此，本文特別針對這個學階的生命科學學生所撰寫英文期刊論文的「摘要」部分做個分析，並且比較以英語為母語的相同領域學者所寫論文之相關部分，以便找出我國博士生的可能問題。

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[2] 「言步」是一個言談單位（discourse unit），此概念源自英國伯明罕學派辛克萊和柯爾德關於教室言談分析的理論(Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975)。他們認為教室言談可以分析為五個「級別」（ranks），那就是「授課」（lesson）、「交往」（transaction）、「對答」（exchange）、「言步」（move）及「言行」（act），上層單位由若干下層單位構成。這裡的「言行」概念主要是根據某個語意單位（通常由句子體現）在某場合的溝通功能來定義，所以不等同於奧斯汀（Austin, 1962）和塞爾（Searle, 1969）的言語行為（speech act）。「言步」為「言行」的上層單位，所以一個言步在語料中可能由一個或數個句子來體現。近年來，有些學者將言步解釋為 text part segments「篇章片段」(Gnutzmann and Oldenburg, 1991)或是 communicative categories「溝通類名」(Brett, 1994)。至於辨認言步的方法，有些學者（如 Halliday and Hasan, 1985; Dudley-Evans, 1994）依照「詞彙訊號」（lexical signals），也有學者（如 Martin, 1992）依據系統網絡（system networks）。本文主要依賴詞彙或片語訊號來辨認言步。本文第二節提到一些語料中的言步實例。

貳、材料與方法

我們收集了八十篇生命科學研究者最近幾年發表的學術期刊論文的摘要做為語料。其中五十篇取自台灣生命科學博士生論文，另外三十篇分別取自相同領域之外籍專家(英語為母語者)所寫論文。台灣研究生所寫論文是指已經發表在國際刊物上之英文學術論文，優先考慮對象為清華大學生命科學研究所博士生最近五年來刊出的論文；因為數量不夠，所以也用到台灣其他大學相同研究所博士生的論文。本文所用的語料來源包括下列期刊：*Analytical Biochemistry; Biochemistry International; Journal of Protein Chemistry; Experimental Cell Research; Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communication; Journal of Biological Chemistry; Journal of Neurochemistry; Journal of Cellular Biochemistry* 及 *Molecular and Cellular Biology* 等。

我們按下列步驟進行處理來自這些期刊的論文語料：(一)採訪生命科學系資深教授以便決定語料收集的期刊名稱；(二)依語料作者之身分及母語背景資料，選擇上述期刊登出的論文為對象，進行影印、收集、掃瞄及建檔等工作；(三)進行語料分析及結果統計等工作。

前面提過，「言步」是一個言談單位。它的形式可能小於一個句子，也可能由多個句子體現。本文主要依據詞彙或片語訊號來辨認言步，所以下列實例中劃出底線部分都可視為辨認線索。實例(1)中的 *has recently attracted much attention* 足以顯示這是一個「背景」言步。實例(2)體現「目的」言步，因為根據劃出底線部分的表達，我們可以將這個句子改寫成 This report investigates …而不影響它在原文中的功能。(為了尊重原文作者的隱私，下列段落的來源均以編號標示)

(1) The interaction of phospholipase A2 (PLA2) with glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) has recently attracted attention in view of its implication on inflammation and cell proliferation. (取自 Lifabstw.06)

(2) In this report, the effect of Mg^{2+} ion concentration on the auto-kinase-catalyzed activation of phosphorylase b kinase is investigated. (取自 Lifabstw.07)

下列三個句子分別體現「方法」、「結果」和「結論」。由於表達實驗方法的言步通常都會提到某些操作性行動，因此(3)中的 *We isolated and characterized* 可以視為重要線索。表達結果的言步通常都會牽涉到一些表示「變動」的現象，例如(4)中的劃出底線的語意可為重要線索。實例(5)中的 *Our results suggest* 可以顯示那是作者要下結論的訊號。(下列三個實例皆取自 Lifabstw.08)

(3) We isolated and characterized a novel, radiation 'hypermutable' mutant of Deinococcus radiodurans.

(4) Compared with the wild-type strain D. radiodurans IR, this mutator strain,

designated S101, exhibited sensitivity to UV light, gamma-ray, mitomycin C, and N -methyl- N -nitro- N -nitrosoguanidine.

(5) Our results suggest a putative new pathway of DNA repair in the extremely radioresistant bacterium D. radiodurans .

為了方便說明，以上所舉的言步實例都是找單句體現的例子。在我們的學生語料中，有些言步是利用片語來體現的。當這類言步與其他言步在同一句子中出現的時候，就會產生「言步糾纏」的現象，這一點將會在下一個章節中討論。

參、結果與討論

相對於外籍專家而言，台灣博士生所寫的論文摘要的特色可以從一些數據看得出來。首先，博士生的摘要通常比較短，但是個別句子卻比較長。根據統計，博士生語料中，篇幅最長者為 314 字，最短者為 96 字；外籍專家語料中，篇幅最長者為 398 字，最短者為 120 字。其他方面的統計，請看下列表一。

表一
語料長度比較

比較類別	台灣博士生摘要	外籍專家摘要
樣本總篇數	50	30
樣本總字數	10476	6940
每篇平均字數	209.5	231
樣本總句數	434	306
每篇平均句數	8.7	10.2
言步單位(move)總數	546	376
每篇平均言步單位數	10.9	12.5

整體而言，博士生摘要的平均長度無論從句子數、分析單位數或是總字數三方面來比較都比外籍專家的摘要來得短。根據原始資料，博士生摘要比外籍專家的平均字數(231 字)低者共有 30 篇(即 60%)[3]。另外方面，博士生摘要的句子平均長度卻比外籍專家的句子多 1.4 字(24.1：22.7)；前者的單位平均長度比後者也多出 0.7 字(19.2：18.5)。若以外籍專家的單位平均數(18.5 字)為基準，超過此基數的

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[3] 這類原始資料未列在本文圖表中。

博士生摘要佔 50%，也高於外籍專家的 46%。博士生的摘要比較短，但英文句子比較長。

從各言步的出現篇數也可以看出博士生的摘要特色(表二)。最值得注意是「結果」與「結論」。這二種言步在每篇外籍專家語料都出現，在博士生語料中的出現篇數也接近百分之百；可見，絕大多數生命科學研究者將它們視為必用言步(obligatory moves)。從其他三種言步的出現篇數，我們可以看出博士生摘要的其他特性。除了「方法」之外，超過80%的外籍專家都會用到「背景」與「目的」。提到「方法」者也高達 60%的篇數，可見他們的共識相當高。與此相比，不及50%的博士生篇數提到「背景」，也只有半數的作者提到「目的」，而「方法」只在三份之一的篇數中出現。可見，這三種言步在多數博士生心目中只不過是可用言步(optional moves)。

表二

各言步的出現總篇數及出現百分比

	台灣博士生語料		外籍專家語料	
言步名稱	出現總篇數	出現率(%)	出現總篇數	出現率(%)
背景	24	48	24	80
目的	26	52	27	90
方法	15	30	18	60
結果	50	100	30	100
結論	47	94	30	100

從表二所呈現的數據來看，博士生與外籍專家所寫的期刊摘要有二項共同點：(一)所有論文作者都將「結果」視為摘要的必要成分；(二)所有外籍專家及94%博士生作者將「結論」視為摘要的必要成分，這是他們的共同點。他們之間的差別顯示在其他言步方面：超過 80%的外籍作者認為論文摘要需要提到研究背景及目的；大約只有一半的博士生作者有此認知。另外，這二類研究者對於「方法」言步在摘要中的地位也有顯著差別(30%：60%)。整體而言，外籍學者的摘要可視為整篇論文的縮影；博士生摘要突顯實驗結果。

博士生的摘要特色也可以從各言步在語料中的出現單位數看得出來。在下列表三中，博士生花了接近 60%的摘要篇幅去報導他們的研究結果。相對地，他們只用到 20%的單位數來體現結論。至於用在概述研究背景、目的及材料與方法的單位數都不到 10%。這些數據充分顯示博士生作者對於摘要篇幅的分配。如果篇幅分配能反映寫作目的，博士生作者顯然認為論文摘要的主要目的就是簡略地呈現實驗結果。

另一方面，外籍專家語料中的「結果」言步也花了大約 46%的單位數。可見，說明實驗結果的確是論文摘要的最主要目的。另外，用在「結論」的單位佔 17%，

「背景」及「方法」各佔 15%左右，「目的」只用了 8%的單位數。儘管如此，各言步所佔用的單位數比起博士生來得「平衡」。同樣地，如果篇幅分配能反映寫作目的，外籍專家顯然比較兼顧各言步在論文摘要中的相對地位。他們的摘要內部結構比較完整，成為獨立性相當高的論文章節。

表三

各言步出現單位總數及百分比

	台灣博士生語料		外籍專家語料	
言步名稱	出現言步總數	出現率(%)	出現言步總數	出現率(%)
背景	48	8.8	55	14.6
目的	37	6.8	30	8
方法	36	6.6	55	14.6
結果	318	58.2	172	45.8
結論	107	19.6	64	17

上面所提到的摘要差別主要基於研究者對於摘要寫作的認知不同。除此之外，還有一些差別或許與博士生的語言背景有關。外籍專家通常趨向使用獨立句表達單一言步，因而「背景」與「方法」的單位數都接近 15%。根據表三，博士生摘要分別只用到 8.8%和 6.6%的單位數來體現「背景」及「方法」。然而，就後者來說，這並不表示其他絕大多數的(93%)摘要完全沒有提到研究方法。在我們博士生語料中，絕大部分有關研究方法的訊息都是以片語表達，並且多數以修飾語的方式在句中出現。例如，句子的主語部分關涉「結果」，以副詞片語概述「方法」，這在統計時只算是一個「結果」案例，許多關涉方法或目的的訊息都成為含示體現（implicitly realized）而無法列入統計。相對而言，外籍專家趨向採用單句表達各獨立言步。換言之，上列表三所呈現的數據差異可能與研究者的母語習慣有關，這也會影響摘要的可讀性。

表三中有一組數據也值得注意：博士生及外籍專家用在表達「目的」的篇幅分別只佔 6.8%和 8%。換言之，「目的」在摘要中屬於可以不用明示的（explicitly realized）訊息。這是因為有關研究目標的含義有時可以在「背景」、「方法」或是「結果」的陳述中間接獲得。同時，有關研究目的的訊息也時常以「條件」方式，以副詞片語體現出來。如此，研究目的的概述出現率就不會在數據中呈現出來。

如果觀察原始統計資料，我們發現在「結果」之前都會有某種程度的研究背景概述。換言之，如果有關研究目的及方法的陳述也算是廣義的背景訊息，那麼，100%的外籍專家在「結果」之前概述研究背景，也有高達 90%博士生語料顯示有此現象。總而言之，學術期刊論文摘要是有結構的。它們的構成要件及出現的

順序為：「背景」^「結果」^「結論」[4]。只是這裡的「背景」和「結論」必須採用廣義的解釋；畢竟，相當抽象的結構單位必須容許多樣式的體現。我們教導博士生撰寫期刊論文時應該有此體認。

對於論文摘要的訊息結構經過反覆觀察及探討，自然有個比較清楚的認識。因此，我們可以根據研究心得而對台灣博士生提出一些建議。首先，台灣博士生應該善加掌握「可用資源」(resources available)，儘管學術期刊對於摘要部分可用的篇幅通常都有嚴格限制。根據前面表一所列數據，博士生的摘要平均長度比起外籍專家的摘要來得短，可見他們未能充分利用可用資源而在「背景」、「目的」及「方法」等方面提供概述。(為了方便討論，每個單位之前都標示一個數字。為了保持語料的原始性，下面例子中的英文拼字及文法等問題都維持原貌。)

(6) 過份簡略影響摘要的「獨立性」

[1] The cutting sites specificity of topoisomerase II from porcine spleen were detennined by a modified Sanger's DNA sequencing method. [2] The topoisomerase II prefers to cut DNA at the 3' side of A and leave 5' protruding end with two staggering bases. [3] Through the free energy analysis for DNA duplex, we also found that the topoisomerase II seemed cut DNA preferably at energetically unstable regions. [4] So it is concluded that the specific DNA cutting by porcine spleen topoisomerase II has two structural recognition factors: [5] one is to localize around the energetically unstable region [6] and another is to act at the 3' side of A base. (取自 Lifabstw.01)

上列摘要分析為 6 個單位，總共 104 字，是一篇典型的簡短摘要。簡短未必不好，但若因過份簡略而影響到摘要的「獨立性」或「完整性」，那就值得重視。以(6)為例，如果作者能在[1]之前加上一句表達「背景」以及另一句表示「目的」，那麼它的「完整性」就會增強許多。可見台灣博士生應該善加掌握「可用資源」。任何章節的寫作都是要達成整體的寫作目的，層次清楚及條理分明為基本要求。我們博士生的摘要可以寫得更加有層次、有條理。

(7) 不當訊息發展影響可讀性(「目的」^「結果」^「方法」)

[1] In this study, the relative abundance of splicing variants of *Oreochromis* non-NMDA subtype glutamate receptors was studied by quantitative reverse-transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR). [2] The relative expression level between the flip and flop transcripts of fGluR2α determined by quantitative RT-PCR is apparently much higher than that estimated by sequence analysis of the cloned RT-PCR products. [3] Control studies were performed to demonstrate the accuracy of the application of quantitative RT-PCR analysis in studying the relative abundance between the flip and

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[4] 篇章分析者通常使用特別符號^表示「後接」；所以「目的」^「方法」^「結果」是表示「目的」這個言步出現在最前面，後接「方法」，再下來才是「結果」。

flop transcripts of glutamate receptors. … (取自 Lifabstw.02)

從「章類」(genre)角度，上面(7)所舉摘要可以寫得更好一些。最主要的是它的訊息排列問題。從前面的統計，我們知道絕大多數表達「方法」的句子或單位都會出現在摘要的開始階段，但是在上例中，表達「方法」的句子卻是該摘要的最後一句。下列為可能的改進版本。

(8) 訊息重新安排可以改進可讀性(「目的」^「方法」^「結果」)

[1] This study investigated the relative abundance of splicing variants of *Oreochromis* non-NMDA subtype glutamate receptors by quantitative reverse-transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR). [2] Control studies were performed to demonstrate the accuracy of the application of quantitative RT-PCR analysis in studying the relative abundance between the flip and flop transcripts of glutamate receptors. [3] The relative expression level between the flip and flop transcripts of fGluR2α determined by quantitative RT-PCR was apparently much higher than that estimated by sequence analysis of the cloned RT-PCR products. …

另一方面，外籍學者的摘要結構條理分明而且句意明確，每一句子通常只體現單一言步。與此相對的是，博士生論文摘要中常發現「言步糾纏」的現象，例如：Purpose + Result, Result + Method, Purpose + Method 或是 Result + Conclusion 等等。這種現象在外籍學者的摘要中較少見到，兩個言步通常就會用兩三個句子來表達，所以總句子的數目比較多。有相當比例的博士生趨向使用單一句子表達多種言步。請考慮下列實例中的畫底線部分。

(9) 訊息糾纏影響可讀性：實例一

(博士生原文：單一句子體現「目的」和「結果」)

[1] Computer analysis of protein phosphorylation sites sequence revealed that transcriptional factors and viral oncoproteins are prime targets for regulation of proline-directed protein phosphorylation, suggesting an association of the proline-directed protein kinase (PDPK) family with neoplastic transformation and tumorigenesis. [2] In this report, an immunoprecipitate activity assay of protein kinase FA/glycogen synthase kinase-3α (kinase FA/GSK-3α) (a member of PDPK family) has been optimized for human hepatoma and used to demonstrate for the first time significantly increased ($P < 0.01$) activity in poorly differentiated SK-Hep-1 hepatoma (24.2 ± 2.8 units/mg) and moderately differentiated Mahlavu hepatoma (14.5 ± 2.2 units/mg) when compared to well differentiated Hep 3B hepatoma (8.0 ± 2.4 units/mg). … (取自 Lifabstw.03)

(10) 改進實例一的相關部分：獨立二句子分別體現「目的」和「結果」

… [2] This research attempted to optimize for human hepatoma an immunoprecipitate activity assay of protein kinase FA/glycogen synthase kinase-3α (kinase FA/GSK-3α) (a member of PDPK family). [3] This significantly increased ($P < 0.01$) activity in poorly differentiated SK-Hep-1 hepatoma (24.2 ± 2.8 units/mg) and moderately differentiated Mahlavu hepatoma (14.5 ± 2.2 units/mg) when compared to well differentiated Hep 3B hepatoma (8.0 ± 2.4 units/mg). …

(11) 訊息糾纏影響可讀性：實例二

(博士生原文：單一句子體現「目的」和「結果」)

[1] Arsenic is the first metal to be identified as a human carcinogen. [2] Arsenite, one inorganic form of arsenic, has been found to induce sister chromatid exchange, chromosome aberrations, and gene amplification in a variety of in vitro systems. [3] In this study of arsenite-induced genotoxicity represented as micronuclei production in Chinese hamster ovary cells (CHO-K1), we found that the calcium channel blocker, verapamil, can potentiate arsenite induced micronuclei. ... (取自 Lifabstw.04)

(12) 實例二相關部分改進結果：獨立二句子分別體現「目的」和「結果」

... [3] This study observed arsenite-induced genotoxicity represented as micronuclei production in Chinese hamster ovary cells (CHO-K1). [4] We found that the calcium channel blocker, verapamil, can potentiate arsenite induced micronuclei. ...

(13) 訊息糾纏影響可讀性：實例三

(博士生原文：單一句子體現「目的」^「方法」)

[1] The solution structure and hydration of the chimeric duplex $[d(CGC)r(aaa)d(TTTGCG)]_2$, in which the central hybrid segment is flanked by DNA duplexes at both ends, was determined using two-dimensional NMR, silulated annealing and restrained molecular dynamics. ... (取自 Lifabstw.05)

(14) 實例三相關部分改進結果：獨立二句子分別體現「目的」^「方法」

[1] This research attempted to determine the solution structure and hydration of the chimeric duplex $[d(CGC)r(aaa)d(TTTGCG)]_2$, in which the central hybrid segment is flanked by DNA duplexes at both ends. [2] We used two-dimensional NMR, silulated annealing and restrained molecular dynamics. ...

上面的實例顯示，台灣博士生時常將多個言步集中在一起由一個單位表達，結果造成 Method + Purpose, 或是 Purpose + Result，或是 Method + Result，或是 Result + Conclusion 等言步混合情形。上面所提的相關改進版本都是將各個言步

改為單一句子來體現，如此可以相當方便地改善文章的可讀性。總而言之，我們的博士生在撰寫學術期刊摘要方面尚有改進空間。他們應該體認使用簡單句可以更方便地達成論文的寫作目的，並且切實養成使用獨立句表達「單一言步」的習慣。如此，論文的訊息層次可以更清楚，條理也可以更分明。

肆、結論

經過前面的探討，我們對於台灣博士生所發表的學術期刊摘要有個比較深入的瞭解。前面的分析以及圖表所列的數據，對於台灣地區的學術英文或科技英文教學可能有些啟示，對於他們的摘要組織應該有些幫助。無論從學術或實用角度看，學術章類分析值得大家繼續共同努力。

儘管如此，本研究遭遇過不少困難，其中有關語料分類是個很難解決的問題，生命科學的期刊論文通常都有二位以上掛名發表。有些論文由某個博士生帶頭掛名發表，但是真正執筆寫出該論文的摘要者可能為其指導教授，也很可能經過指導教授或是期刊論文審查者大幅度地修改過，因而將該論文摘要歸入「博士生語料」不無問題，但是我們卻無法完全避免這種現象。類似的問題也可能出現在「外籍專家」部分；我們至多只能根據作者姓名及其所屬機關之所在地來「猜測」其為外籍資深研究者，可見這方面的語料分類也可能出現問題。這些因素都可能會影響語料判讀，有待改進。

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Genre Analysis and Academic English Teaching:
Improvement of Abstracts Written
by Taiwanese Ph.D. Students

Abstract

Swales' pioneering work (Swales, 1981) has inspired substantial research investigating the structure of academic papers. Hyland's (2000) study shows that structures of academic abstracts may reflect distinctive disciplinary cultures and ideologies. This paper attempts to show how such structures may also be influenced by the writer's writing experience. We aim to observe structural characteristics of academic journal abstracts written by Taiwanese Ph.D. students. Our data came from 50 journal articles written by local Ph.D. students majoring in life science and 30 from those written by foreign experts of the same field. We found that nearly all the 80 abstracts contain Results and Conclusion, the two obligatory moves in the corpora. The occurrence frequencies of Background, Purpose and Method in the 50 student corpus were, respectively, 48%, 52%, and 30%, compared with 80%, 90%, 60% in the foreign expert corpus. The student abstracts spent 58% of text space on Results, 20% on Conclusions, and less than 10% on all the other three moves. The student authors appear to regard reporting results as their prime task in writing abstracts. Foreign scholars seem to put relatively proportional weights on the five moves. Our results might have some implications for teaching English for academic purposes in Taiwan.

Key Words: genre analysis, academic journal abstracts, teaching English for academic purposes

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Task Difficulty in Semi-direct Speaking Tests – Code Complexity

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Abstract

The paper reports preliminary findings from an initial stage of a study on task difficulty in the GEPT Speaking Test-Intermediate Level (GEPTS-I、全民英檢中級口說能力測驗), a semi-direct speaking test. The aim of the study is to examine the effects on task difficulty of variables associated with various performance conditions, such as complexity of language in written input, test-takers' familiarity with non-verbal prepositional content, and planning time. This paper focuses exclusively on the effects on task difficulty of performance conditions associated with the code complexity of written input in the read-aloud tasks of GEPTS-I. A group of 32 Taiwanese learners, who are also prospective GEPTS-I candidates, participated in this study. Each subject was asked to read aloud a total of eight passages, four of which are standard passages as used in the past administrations of GEPT-I and the other four passages were specially modified for this study. In the modified passages, lexical range was varied and its impact on the difficulty of the tasks was measured by comparison of test scores of accuracy and fluency, number of errors in pronunciation/intonation and unnatural pauses, and test-takers' reports on estimates of difficulty. Implications for the design of speaking assessments as well as directions for future research are discussed.

Key Words: code complexity, lexical range, performance conditions, speaking tests, task difficulty

INTRODUCTION TO THE GEPT SPEAKING TEST - INTERMEDIATE LEVEL (GEPTS-I)

In 1999, to promote the concept of life-long learning and to further encourage the study of English, the Ministry of Education in Taiwan commissioned The Language Training and Testing Center (LTTC) to develop the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), with the aim of providing Taiwanese learners of English at all levels of proficiency a fair and reliable English test. The GEPT is intended for students and other individuals from all walks of life. The test is administered in five levels, Elementary, Intermediate, High-Intermediate, Advanced, and Superior, each level including listening, reading, writing, and speaking components. Each level corresponds to the major stages in English competency in the educational system in Taiwan, for final-year junior high graduates, senior high graduates, non-English major graduates, English major graduates, and a further level of near that of well-educated native speakers of English. Detailed descriptions for the GEPT are available at http://www.gept.org.tw or http://www.lttc.ntu.edu.tw.

In light of the nature and purpose of the GEPT, a major consideration in developing a test component of speaking proficiency for use within the GEPT program was that it must be amenable to large-scale standardized administration at GEPT test centers islandwide. For the GEPTS-I, where there are normally over 10,000 test-takers in each nationwide administration, the use of face-to-face interviews, which would involve direct interaction between the test-taker and an interlocutor who must be a trained native or near-native speaker of English was considered too costly and impractical. Therefore, a tape-mediated, semi-direct speaking format was considered more feasible for the GEPTS-I.

The GEPTS-I comprises three separate task types to elicit discrete language elements from the test-takers (i.e., particular lexical items, syntactic patterns, and communicative functions). Vocabulary is controlled within the range with which high school graduates in Taiwan can be assumed to be familiar. The three task types are:

Reading Aloud In this first task, the test-taker sees two to three printed passages of about 150 words and is given two minutes to look over the texts and read them silently. The test-taker then reads the passages aloud with attention to pronunciation, intonation, and flow of delivery. The texts provided in GEPTS-I are mainly narrative and expository.

Answering Questions In this second task, the test-taker is required to situate him/herself in the position of being in an imaginary interview with the interlocutor who is heard on the test tape. The test-taker is required to respond to ten questions, each question being heard twice. This format is considered to have a high degree of face validity because it reflects a real-life situation in which a person would engage with an interlocutor for a communicative purpose.

Picture Description In this third task, the test-taker studies a colored picture accompanied by a series of guided questions which are written in Chinese. The test-taker is given 30 seconds to look over the picture and questions, and then given 1.5 minutes to complete a description of the picture i.e., to talk about the relationship among the persons; their behavior, thoughts, and attitudes. This format is considered to reflect real-life situations in which the speaker tells a story or engages in a relatively lengthy narration of events.

For the rating of test-takers' performance on the GEPTS-I, each test-taker tape is rated independently by two different raters who are experienced teachers and specialists in the field of English or English as a second language. Neither rater knows the scores assigned by the other. Each rater assigns a score level using descriptors of communicative effectiveness on the GEPTS-I Rating Scale, a holistic scale of 0 to 5. Test scores are produced from the average of the two separate ratings. If the two raters do not agree sufficiently, when the difference is larger than one band score, a third rater is employed, and final scores for tapes requiring a third rating are based on a resolution of differences between the three scores. The inter-rater coefficient alphas for the four GEPTS-I administrations from 2000 through 2001 indicate that inter-rater reliability is at an acceptable level, with the values for coefficient alpha ranging from .88 to .92.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Task Difficulty in General

Following the work of Bygate (1987) and Weir (1993), test-taker ability in the GEPTS-I is conceptualized as being shown through performance in tasks, which are describable in terms of a set of language operations and performance conditions. This approach to describing tasks can help test developers make *a priori* decisions relating to task difficulty. Skehan and Foster (1997) have suggested that foreign language performance is affected by task processing conditions and they attempted to manipulate processing conditions in order to modify or predict difficulty. In continuing this work, Skehan (1996) and Norris, Brown, Hudson, and Yoshioka (1998) made attempts to identify factors that can affect the difficulty of a given task and which can be manipulated so as to change (increase or decrease) task difficulty. In their discussion, they propose that difficulty is a function of code complexity (lexical and syntactic difficulty), cognitive complexity (process and familiarity), and communicative demand (time pressure). A number of empirical findings have revealed that task difficulty has an effect on performance, as measured in the three areas of accuracy, fluency, and complexity (Foster & Skehan, 1996; 1999; Robinson, 1995; Skehan, 1996; 1998; Skehan & Foster, 1997; 1999; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999; O'Sullivan, Weir & Ffrench, 2001; Wigglesworth, 1997). These findings all suggest that an understanding of variables affecting task difficulty is desirable in both test task development and in task evaluation. Most of the research done in this field has been conducted either in a classroom setting or within a one-to-one/group oral interaction context. In comparison, investigation of task difficulty in a semi-direct speaking test format, such as the GEPTS-I, has been limited. As an initial attempt, therefore, this study focuses, exclusively, on the effect of performance conditions in association with code complexity of the written input in the read-aloud task of the GEPTS-I.

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Code Complexity

Skehan (1996) defines code complexity as being 'concerned with traditional areas of syntactic and lexical difficulty and range'. Norris et al. (1998) propose that grading a task according to processing difficulty involves identifying the relative complexity or simplicity of the language code that is required to complete the task. They describe code complexity as:

> Code indicates the complexity of the vocabulary, grammar, text structure, pragmatics, pronunciation, and so forth that is involved in the information that must be both processed and produced in a given task. The relative difficulty of the code that is inherent in the current set of tasks can vary according to the range of the code, the number of sources of code input, and the manner in which the input is delivered. (p. 74)

Particularly, they describe the concept of the range of the code as:

> Range addresses the extent to which the code that is inherent in the language of a given task represents a greater or lesser degree of *spread*. Particular characteristics of the language code that might exhibit such spread would include vocabulary items, grammatical structures, pragmatic features of the task, structure of the information that is presented or produced, and so forth. (p. 79)

Evidence of the effects of language code can be found in reading aloud activities. L2 learners, while reading silently, often stop when they come to a word or a grammatical structure they do not know. Needless to say, when reading aloud, the effect of language difficulty is obviously greater. Yorio (1971), in her discussion of L2 learners' reading processes, noted that reading aloud is difficult in nature by quoting Goodman's (1967) statement:

> In oral reading, the reader must perform two tasks at the same time. He must produce an oral equivalent of the graphic input which is the signal in reading, and he must also reconstruct the meaning of what he is reading. (p. 131)

Yorio argues that an individual when reading aloud must go through a process of complex decoding, from the 'surface structure (the printed form)' to the 'deep structure,' to capture meaning, and then the reader must 'encode' again to produce another form of surface structure (sound). Further, from the perspective of information-processing, McLaughlin (1985), in his analysis of errors ESL learners made when reading aloud, found that the learners' errors were primarily 'nonmeaningful'. Learners would make such errors as 'She shook the piggy bank and out came some many' (for 'money'); whereas native speakers were more likely to make meaningful errors, such as 'She shook the piggy bank and out came some dimes'. L2 learners' errors of this kind show that at a certain stage in learning they still process the text word by word, not utilizing semantic and syntactic cues.

Therefore, relevant to the effect of test performance conditions, it is anticipated that varying the condition under which the number of unfamiliar words has been increased will make this process of decoding more difficult. It is hypothesized in this present study that when the language complexity of the test input in the GEPTS-I read-aloud passages is increased in terms of lexical range, test-takers must put greater effort into language processing, which will signify an increase in task difficulty, and changes in task difficulty will consequently be demonstrated in test-takers' actual performance and also in their self-assessment of their performance.

To test this hypothesis, there is a need for a reliable and efficient instrument to assess the code range of read-aloud passages in the GEPTS-I. Although Norris et al. (1998, p.79) suggest such assessments can be done by 'consensus judgements'; also, for the sake of ensuring test fairness, in addition to human judgements, we should also seek to employ other measures to assess the linguistic difficulty of the passages used in the test, and readability formulas can play a role in providing reliable measures of linguistic difficulty. It is suggested that using both consensus judgements and readability formulas to provide information on difficulty can therefore help test designers in controlling test difficulty during the process of test development.

Readability Formulas

Readability formulas, such as Dale-Chall, Fry, and Spache are widely used in measuring text difficulty. Results from these formulas have shown the strongest predictor of overall text difficulty to be word difficulty. Similarly, according to Campbell (1987), lexis is identified most regularly by readers as an influential factor in reading comprehension. Word difficulty can be measured based on word frequency, familiarity, or length. These word factors were found to be highly related to each other (Chall & Conard, 1991). A further strong predictor of text difficulty is sentence length. Sentence length was perceived to be a better predictor of syntactic complexity than more complex syntactic measures (Bourmuth, 1971; MacGinitie & Tretiak, 1971). The Dale-Chall formula makes use of a basic US fourth grade list of 3,000 English words as well as the average sentence length within each passage of 100 words to rate passages from a reading level of 1 to a college graduate level of 16. It was reported that word familiarity and sentence lengths together correlated highly with reading comprehension at .92 (Chall & Dale, 1995).

However, when estimating text difficulty using a readability formula, we should bear in mind its limitations. As Chall and Dale (1995) warn, "No readability formula is a complete and full measure of text difficulty. It measures only a limited number of the many characteristics that make text easy or hard to read and understand". They suggest a text may be more readable to readers if it has good organization and explains ideas clearly, and that it may be less readable if it contains unfamiliar concepts or requires more background knowledge. Therefore, besides word and sentence difficulty, other factors which are associated with text difficulty, but can not be measured by the formula, such as the cognitive and structural aspects of the text, should also be taken into account. Estimates of such aspects of text difficulty usually require human judgements, and in this present study, a checklist of general aspects of difficulty (Appendix 1) was created to elicit raters' views on lexical items, grammatical structures, topics, text types, concreteness/abstractness of content, language functions, and text lengths.

PROCEDURES

In this study, Rodrigues and Stieglitz' computer program Readability Master 2000 (1997) was used to measure text difficulty. According to the program output, the average level of difficulty of the reading passages in both standard GEPTS-I tests used in this study was estimated at Level 3 under Dale-Chall. Estimates generated by two other readability formulas, Fry and Spache were also used as cross-references. Each of the three formulas measures difficulty levels on a different basis. Both Dale-Chall and Spach look primarily at vocabulary, whereas Fry looks at word length (number of syllables). For other aspects of text difficulty, five English teachers, who are Chinese speakers and have taught English at the intermediate level for many years, were invited to consider the checklist and judge the difficulty of the passages. As shown in Table 1, all five raters agreed that the texts were at the same level of difficulty in terms of lexical items, topic, language functions, concreteness of content, and text length. Three of the raters also considered that both standard tests had equally familiar grammatical structures and text types. Therefore, again, the two standard GEPTS-I tests were confirmed to be equally difficult.

Table 1

Raters' Views on Task Difficulty

Aspect	Lexical Items	Grammatical Structures	Topics	Concreteness of Content	Language Functions	Text Types	Text Lengths
Equally familiar	○○○ ○○	○○○	○○○ ○○	○○○ ○○	○○○ ○○	○○○	○○○ ○○

Based on the passages in the standard tests, the modified passages were produced by increasing the number of unfamiliar words, but without altering any other factors such as degree of grammatical difficulty, pragmatic features, or language functions, which may affect difficulty. The following guidelines were used to ensure the passages were modified systematically.

- Identifying familiar lexical items which are on the Dale-Chall list of 3,000 words
- Lexical modification – selecting words which are beyond the Dale-Chall list for replacement
- Increasing the readability level of each passage from Dale-Chall 3 to 5-6 (The readability scores for each passage are summarized in Table 2.)
- Minimal variation in the sentence lengths and text lengths
- Minimal alteration of the content

Table 2
Readability Scores for Each Passage

Form	No. of Words	No. of Sentences	Dale-Chall Level	No. of Unfamiliar Words	Fry Level	No. of Syllables	Spache Level	No. of Unfamiliar Words
BO1	69	6 (9)	3 (3)	3 (5)	5	90	2.1	1
BM1	67	6 (9)	5-6 (5-6)	10 (15)	7	98	3.2	15
BO2	83	6 (8)	3 (3)	4 (5)	7	120	3.4	13
BM2	85	5 (6)	5-6 (5-6)	9 (11)	9	125	3.9	15
CO1	76	5 (7)	3 (3)	3 (4)	7	106	3.7	12
CM1	80	5 (7)	5-6 (5-6)	10 (13)	8	117	4.3	18
CO2	80	9 (11)	3 (3)	7 (9)	4	106	3.2	15
CM2	80	7 (9)	5-6 (5-6)	11 (14)	6	109	3.5	18

( ) denotes the converted figures for samples shorter than 100 words (Example: A sample of 60 words and 3 sentences converts to 5 sentences per 100 words).

'O' in the form reference denotes an original passage; 'M' a modified passage.

Thirty-two subjects who are prospective GEPTS-I test-takers participated in this study on a voluntary basis. All 32 subjects took two standard tests (BO and CO) and two modified tests (BM and CM). The standard tests were followed by the modified tests. Each test consists of two passages, so each individual subject was asked to read aloud a total of eight passages (Appendix 2). In this way, the effect of lexical range as a performance condition on difficulty of each passage in the standard and the modified tests could be compared. Statistical procedures, such as the *t*-test, were also employed to measure the effect.

For the subjects' performance data on the standard and modified tests, two authorized raters were invited to assess each subject's answer tape and to assign each read-aloud passage two scores (on a holistic scale of 0-5) for fluency and accuracy. Moreover, to better serve the purpose of this study, based on the operational GEPTS-I rating scale, a sub-scale was developed in which the specific description of performance on the read-aloud task was given (Appendix 3). The rater scores were computed in compliance with the procedures employed in the operational GEPTS-I and the two raters correlated highly (coefficient $\alpha=0.93$). To further measure subjects' performance data, while rating, the same raters were asked to note down and count the occurrence of errors and unnatural pauses which the subjects produced.

Also, immediately after their completing each test, the subjects were invited to respond to a questionnaire (Appendix 4) in which they were requested to provide a self-assessment of their performance and to note their affective reactions to each test with a focus on linguistic difficulty and on other aspects of difficulty associated with performance conditions including planning and performing times. Responses to the questions were given on a Likert Scale of 7 (1 "strongly agree" to 7 "strongly disagree").

RESULTS

Task Performance on Standard and Modified Test Forms

A general report on mean scores for each read-aloud passage is given in Table 3. Mean scores for fluency and accuracy for all four passages in the standard forms, BO1, BO2, CO1, CO2, are higher than those for their counterpart modified passages, BM1, BM2, CM1, CM2. For fluency, the mean scores for the standard passages range from 3.56 to 4.15; whereas, for the modified passages, the score drops to a range of 2.69-3.00. For accuracy of pronunciation/intonation, a score range of 3.28-3.84 for the standard passages drops to 2.53-2.78 for the modified passages. These changes in mean scores for fluency and accuracy indicate that the subjects' performance was affected by the increase in text difficulty.

This research also attempts to measure the effect of a broader lexical range on read-aloud performance by comparing the number of errors and unnatural pauses which the subjects made while performing the read-aloud tasks at different difficulty levels. The highlighted figures in Table 3 show that the subjects made more errors in pronunciation/intonation when they read aloud the modified passages, as compared to the standard passages (5.41 to 8.16 times vs 3.00 to 5.22 times). It was consistently found that subjects paused more frequently when reading the modified passages than the standard ones (3.06 to 5.34 times vs 1.50 to 3.03 times). Again, these findings on number of errors in pronunciation/intonation and unnatural pauses indicate and confirm that the subjects' performance was affected by the increase in text difficulty. Moreover, t-tests for each pair of variables (i.e., BO1a vs BM1a; BO2a vs BM2a; CO1a vs CM1a; etc.) also show there are significant effects on subjects' performance ($p<.05$).

Table 3
General Report on Each Passage

Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean	Variable	Mean
BO1a	3.75	BO2a	3.56	BM1a	2.97	BM2a	2.69
CO1a	3.75	CO2a	4.15	CM1a	2.81	CM2a	3.00
BO1b	3.37	BO2b	3.28	BM1b	2.78	BM2b	2.53
CO1b	3.46	CO2b	3.84	CM1b	2.53	CM2b	2.75
BO1c	3.97	BO2c	4.09	BM1c	5.41	BM2c	8.13
CO1c	5.22	CO2c	3.00	CM1c	8.16	CM2c	5.53
BO1d	1.97	BO2d	2.56	BM1d	3.78	BM2d	5.34
CO1d	3.03	CO2d	1.50	CM1d	4.01	CM2d	3.06

a – fluency score, b – pronunciation & intonation score, c – number of errors in pronunciation & intonation, d – number of unnatural pauses

Subjects' Views on Task Difficulty

In general, in an analysis of post-test questionnaire responses, the subjects felt more comfortable with the standard test forms. The subjects' views are summarized in the following text and in Table 4.

Item 1: I found it difficult to read aloud in English.

Responses show that the subjects agreed that both standard test forms were easier than the modified test forms.

Item 2: I felt that the amount of time (one minute) provided for preparation was sufficient.

Item 3: I felt that the amount of time (two minutes) provided for reading the passage aloud was sufficient.

Responses to these two items, concerning the amount of planning time and performing time, show that subjects perceived the changes in difficulty and also expressed a need for more time to process the texts.

Item 4: I made few pronunciation mistakes in reading aloud.

Item 5: I didn't pause too much in reading aloud.

Both items were intended to request subjects' self-assessment of their performance in terms of the frequency of errors in pronunciation/intonation and unnatural pauses. In both items, the subjects agreed that they had produced more errors in the areas of pronunciation/intonation and that they had paused too much in reading aloud the modified passages.

Table 4

Subjects' Questionnaire Responses

Item	BO	BM	CO	CM
1	5.13	4.34	5.34	4.09
2	3.56	4.16	3.75	3.91
3	1.81	2.47	2.03	2.06
4	4.59	5.19	4.19	5.13
5	4.56	4.97	3.75	4.81

CONCLUSION

This paper has discussed the effects on task difficulty of performance conditions associated with the code complexity of the written input in the GEPTS-I. The difficulty levels of the passages used in the reading-aloud task were manipulated, and the impact on difficulty was measured by various methods, including test scores of accuracy and fluency with counts of errors in pronunciation/intonation and unnatural pauses, and estimates of difficulty reported by the subjects.

Subjects' test scores have revealed the effect of the increase in difficulty. Mean scores for both modified passages were significantly lower than those for the standard passages, and a consistent phenomenon was found in the frequency of unnatural pauses and errors in pronunciation/intonation where the subjects produced significantly more errors and pauses while they were reading aloud the modified passages. These score results clearly indicate that a wider lexical range in the written input has increased the difficulty of the read-aloud tasks, which consequently has significantly affected the subjects' performance.

Echoing what was found in their actual performance, in questionnaire responses, subjects reported that they felt more comfortable with the standard test forms than with the modified ones. The subjects perceived that the passages in both standard forms were easier for them to read aloud than those in the modified test forms. As a result, the subjects felt that they would need more time to process the more difficult texts. Moreover, the subjects reported that they performed the modified tasks less well than the standard tasks because they did not read the modified passages as accurately or as fluently as they did the standard tasks.

Although the sample size of this preliminary study was small, the effect on task difficulty of performance conditions associated with code complexity of the written input is nonetheless evident and has been successfully demonstrated. These results show that without taking necessary procedures to control the degree of test difficulty, test quality may fluctuate over different test forms, and as a result, test-takers may be disadvantaged and test fairness hampered. The findings of this present study urge test designers to be thoughtful in developing test specifications and also cautious in preparing written input for a speaking test such as the GEPTS-I. Further, the present study has demonstrated how to control test difficulty effectively by using various approaches. The use of readability formulas allows us to obtain useful information on code complexity of a text related to vocabulary and sentence length. Used together with readability formulas, human judgements on linguistic difficulty and other aspects of difficulty including text types, language functions, text lengths, etc., provide us with other information on test difficulty. Use of both methods in the process of test development can assist in equalizing the degree of test difficulty between test forms and guaranteeing test quality.

It is suggested that performance on various other types of tasks should be investigated so that the effects of code complexity on performance of different kinds of tasks can be measured and compared. In addition, whether these effects are related to a variation in proficiency level among test-takers should be explored. In future studies, in order to seek greater generalizability, the sample size will be enlarged and the scope of research also expanded. It is hoped that findings from research of this present kind will provide insights into how to enhance fairness to test-takers in the development and administration of semi-direct speaking tests, such as the GEPTS-I.

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APPENDIX I

Checklist of Task Difficulty

1. The topics of the texts are equally familiar to test-takers.
2. The content (in terms of concreteness/abstractness) of the texts is the same.
3. The text type of the texts is the same.
4. The lexical items of the texts are equally familiar to test-takers.
5. The grammatical structures of the texts are equally familiar to test-takers.
6. The language functions of the texts are equally familiar to test-takers.
7. The test-takers should be able to complete the tasks within the time given for each.

Strongly Agree Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5

If you disagree, please explain why?

APPENDIX Ⅱ

Test forms

FORM BO1 I got back from my vacation trip last night at about 9:00 pm. As usual, I'd brought back more stuff than I'd left home with. This time, my suitcases were full of some second-hand books I'd picked up. Boy, were they heavy. And I live on the 5th floor of a building without an elevator. Can you guess how I managed to get everything upstairs without breaking my back?

FORM BO2 Last night I went to my favorite restaurant and I ordered a chicken dinner. I usually order their pork and rice special, but I decided to have something different for a change. When the meal came I was reading my book. The dish looked familiar to me, so I just started eating. A minute later the waitress came back to my table, but it was too late. I'd already eaten someone else's pork and rice special, which was brought to me by mistake.

FORM BM1 My practice of bringing back suitcases full of second-hand books whenever I go on vacation is suicide. It would not be a problem if I lived in a building with an elevator. You do know where I live, don't you? On the top floor of a five-story walk-up. Try to imagine lugging three suitcases of books up all those stairs, after twenty hours in transit. Never again.

FORM BM2 It's disturbing to alter your ways, and last night at dinner was a good example. After months of always ordering pork and rice, I decided to order chicken for a change. As usual, when the waitress brought my order, I was deep in the novel I'd brought along, and, not paying any attention, I just started eating. Suddenly, the waitress, realizing she'd delivered somebody else's pork and rice to my table, dashed over to retrieve it. She was too late; I'd never noticed the mistake.

FORM CO1 I'll never forget an accident I had once with a motorcycle. It was a rainy night, and as I drove through an intersection, a young man on a motorcycle ran into the side of my car. Fortunately, he was wearing a helmet, so he wasn't hurt, but his motorcycle was badly damaged and so was my car. We finally agree to split the cost of the repairs. Since then, I've been a much more careful driver.

FORM CO2 Hi, Susan. This is Lewis. I'm just calling to let you know that I won't be able to come to your party on Saturday night after all. Sorry. I was looking forward to seeing you and all our old college friends. Unfortunately, I found out today that I have to fly to Hong Kong on Friday for some meetings and won't be back until early next week. Anyway, have fun at your party. Look forward to seeing you soon. Bye.

FORM CM1 I always drive carefully on a rainy night like this one, ever since a scary accident I once had. The streets were slick, of course, and a motorcyclist slid out into the traffic as he tried to stop at an intersection. As I braked to avoid hitting him, my car skidded as well. Fortunately, the motorcyclist was unhurt, but both of our vehicles were damaged. Rather than drive up our insurance rates, we decided to pay for the repairs ourselves.

FORM CM2 Hi, Susan. This is Lewis. I'm calling to say I'm afraid I won't be able to attend the reunion this weekend. Something urgent has come up at work, and I have to attend some meetings in Hong Kong, and, I'm sorry, but there is no way for me to get out of them. I'm disappointed about this because I'd been looking forward to seeing people. I'd appreciate it very much if you could send everyone my regards. Thank you, bye.

APPENDIX Ⅲ

Rating Scale

Task: Read Aloud		
Rating	Aspect	Interpretation
5 Excellent	Accuracy	Entirely intelligible pronunciation; very natural and correct intonation
	Fluency	The test-taker speaks fluently with minimal hesitations.
4 Good	Accuracy	Generally intelligible pronunciation; generally natural and correct intonation
	Fluency	The test-taker generally speaks fluently, hesitations may sometimes occur.
3 Fair	Accuracy	Some errors in pronunciation and intonation influence comprehensibility.
	Fluency	The test-taker sometimes speaks fluently, though unnecessary hesitations still occur.
2 Poor	Accuracy	Many errors in pronunciation and intonation; the test-taker sometimes gives up on reading words which he does not recognize.
	Fluency	The test-taker doesn't speak with ease, unnecessary hesitations occur frequently.
1 Very poor	Accuracy	The test-taker has little ability to handle the task.
	Fluency	The test-taker doesn't speak with ease; unnecessary hesitations occur very frequently.

APPENDIX Ⅳ

Questionnaire(問卷)

請根據您剛才所朗讀的短文，回答下列問題；請圈選適當的答案

1. 我認為短文朗讀困難。
2. 我認為閱讀短文的時間(一分鐘)充足。
3. 我認為正式朗讀短文的時間(二分鐘)充足。
4. 朗讀時，我在發音、語調上錯誤很少。
5. 朗讀時，我沒有過多的停頓。

同意　　　　　　　　　　不同意

1　2　3　4　5　6　7

英語教學 *English Teaching & Learning*
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全民英檢中級口說能力測驗中語彙、語法與難易度關係之探討

摘要

本項研究係「全民英檢」口說能力測驗效度研究計劃之一部份。本文主要探討「全民英檢」中級口說能力測驗朗讀短文之文段所使用的語彙對測驗難易度產生的影響。每位考生朗讀八段短文，依語彙分成兩種具不同難易度之版本，以比較考生在兩者之間於成績、發音語調之錯誤及不當停頓之頻率、考生對難易度改變之感受等之差異。本文也就如何有效控制不同試卷之難易度平行與確保測驗之公平性提出具體建議。

關鍵詞：語彙難度　語彙範圍　作答條件　口說能力測驗　難易度

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L2 Acquisition of Subject-Prominence by EFL Students in Taiwan*

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Abstract

As a topic-prominent (TP) language, Chinese is classified as a superset language, while English, a subject-prominent (SP) language, is a subset language (Li & Thompson, 1976; Huang, 1984). On the basis of this difference, we would like to see if learners of a superset language have great difficulty in acquiring a subset language, and if the intermediate learners of English in Taiwan are still influenced by this typological variation, hence yielding a significant transfer effect. In this study, we investigated forty-five Chinese students of English who have learned English for three to six years. Two experiments were designed: one was an ordering task and the other was an acceptability judgment task. The results show that SP features have already been successfully acquired, since most of our subjects did not encounter great difficulty in acquiring English SP features. With respect to L1 transfer, we found that there were still some residual L1 effects reflected in the acceptability judgment task, in which our subjects tended to accept more TP sentences than English native speakers.

Key Words: L2 Acquisition, Subject-prominence, L1 transfer, syntax

INTRODUCTION

It has been widely accepted that English is a subject-prominent language as in (1) and Chinese a topic-prominent language as illustrated in (2):

(1) *This girl, I did not meet before.
(2) Zhe wei xiansheng wo bu jide yiqian wo zai nar jian-guo *e*. (Yuan, 1995)
this CL gentleman I not remember before I in where meet Exp (him)
*'This gentleman, I cannot remember where I have met *e* before.'

One possible explanation for this difference is that Chinese considers a topic to be a basic unit of a sentence, whereas English considers a subject more important than a topic (cf. Huang, 1984[1]). That is to say, the two languages form a subset/superset relation in which English is a subset, and Chinese, a superset.

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[1] Huang (1984) proposes the following PS rules to account for the differences between English and Chinese:
(i) Chinese: a. S'→ Topic S
b. S → (NP) VP
(ii) English: a. S'→ (Topic) S
b. S → NP VP

To explain L2 learners' language performance, much second language acquisition (SLA) research has examined the role of language universals and language typology. And the role of syntactic typology in L2 acquisition has led to controversial, contradictory findings. One set of studies (Fuller & Gundel, 1987) have claimed that the process of L2 acquisition is, in general, characterized by an early and universal topic-comment stage, independent of the learners' native language. The other set (Huebner, 1983; Jin, 1994[2]; Rutherford, 1983; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979) has found that L2 learners transfer TP/SP from their L1 to L2 at an early stage. Besides, extensive studies on the acquisition of English (SP) by speakers of a TP language have been conducted. These researchers[3] have observed that L1 speakers of TP languages transfer TP features in L2 acquisition. For example, Schachter & Rutherford (1979) and Rutherford (1983) discovered numerous instances of L1 TP transfer in English compositions by Mandarin Chinese speakers, who treated initial NP as a topic rather than a subject. Yip (1989) noted that there is a subset/superset relation between the SP and TP construction, because the notion of topic-comment includes that of subject–predicate. Yip predicted that in acquiring English, Chinese speakers would not have direct positive evidence to help them unlearn the topic-comment structure in their L1. As a result, there exists a potential learnability problem for a Chinese speaker learning English.

So far it has been found that in L2 acquisition there is a typological transfer. This study in particular focused on Chinese speakers learning English to see if there was a typological transfer of TP features from L1 to L2. In addition, we further explored the learnability problem discussed in Zobl (1986) and Yip (1989), who claimed that depending on positive evidence alone, speakers of a topic-prominent language (which is a superset language) like Chinese will have difficulty learning a subject-prominent language (i.e., a subset language) like English.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CHINESE AND ENGLISH IN TOPIC TYPES

As stated in section 1, both Chinese and English exhibit topics, but Chinese is topic-prominent while English is subject-prominent. Consequently, topics in Chinese are obligatory, but they are optional in English. A closer look at topic types in these two languages shows that Chinese exhibits two types of topics[4]. The first type is the

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As can be seen in (i) and (ii), topic is obligatory in Chinese, whereas subject is obligatory in English. Hence, the predication relation is also different: Chinese sentential-predication versus English VP predication.

[2] Jin (1994) investigated whether TP is a universal development stage or a transferable typology by analyzing the behavior of adult native speakers of a subject-prominent (SP) language learning a TP language. She found that there was a typological transfer of SP to L2, but no universal TP stage.

[3] According to Zobl (1986), TP speakers are likely to misparse an English (SP) sentence like (i) as having a structure like (ii). Zobl argued that it would be difficult for learners to recover from such a misparse, because positive input alone is not enough to inform the learners that it is a misparse.

(i)Naomi loves the noodles.

(ii)$[_{\text{Top}}\text{Naomi}_i]$ $[_S\ e_i$ loves the noodles$]$ (Zobl, 1986)

[4] Some researchers found that Chinese exhibits another type of topic, the so-called double nominative construction (cf. Teng, 1974). This type of topic is usually a subject NP (cf. Wible, 1991). But as one of our reviewers pointed out, since there is no morphological marking in Chinese, it is hard to tell if the subject NP indeed is marked nominative. It may be a topic NP. Regardless of whether it is a subject NP or a topic NP, it is clear that a pause is often inserted between two NPs, as shown in (i):

so-called *base-generated topics.* This type of topic is not created by movement and it is independent of the verb: it need not be an argument of a predicative constituent in the sentence (Li & Thompson, 1976; Yuan, 1995).

(3) Huang-se de tu-di dafen zui heshi. (Li & Thompson, 1981)
yellow-color DE soil manure most suitable
* 'The yellow soil, manure is most suitable.'

For sentence (3) to be acceptable in English, the base-generated topic has to be introduced by expressions like *as for, of, with regard to,* or *speaking of,* as in (4):

(4) As for yellow soil, manure is most suitable.

The second type of topic in Chinese is the moved topic, which is normally moved from either the subject or object position of a comment sentence, as in (5):

(5) Tade piqi, wo mei banfa renshou.
her temper I not able endure
*'Her temper, I cannot endure.'

This type of sentence is less acceptable in English unless a preposition and a coindexed pronoun are inserted, as can be seen in (6)[5]:

(6) As for her temper$_i$, I cannot endure *it*$_i$.

In this study, we will mainly discuss the influence of these two types of topics and our subjects' responses to English subject-prominent sentences.

(i) Ta, tou hen da.
he head very big
'His head is very big.'

In English, the above construction is rare. The sentence corresponding to (i) in English will be (ii), where the topic is in its possessive-form:

(ii) Her taste is not good.

[5] As pointed out by one of the reviewers, sentence (i) corresponds to sentence (5) and can still be grammatical in English:

(i) John, I don't like.

That is to say, both English and Chinese exhibit moved topics and the difference lies in that a vague "aboutness" relation can be found in the Chinese-type of topic construction, but not in the English-type of language (Shyu, 1995; Tang, 1990). In fact, topic construction is a heated issue. Ever since Tsao (1977) and Huang (1984), the syntactic accounts for the topic construction of English and Chinese vary (cf. Chen, 1995). As stated in footnote 1, the topic is obligatorily present, but it is not in English. Hence, the main difference between Chinese and English is the degree of acceptability in certain contexts, where a moved topic is possible in Chinese, but still not possible in English (personal communication with James Myers). Those cases where most of the data came from native English speakers may not completely associate with the "aboutness" condition. That is to say, given a plain context, Chinese is likely to have either moved topics or base-generated topics, but English requires the contexts to be really strong in order to trigger the presence of a moved topic. But in the case of base-generated topics, English-type topics can be possible as they are headed by a preposition as in sentence (6). Hence, we don't really mean that (i) is "ungrammatical." It is less acceptable in English when the context is not strong, but it is perfectly acceptable in Chinese where the context may not be so strong. We would like to thank the reviewer for pointing out the term "grammaticality" here. It may not be appropriate for us to use this term. We will use "acceptability" instead. Owing to this difference, two different "contexts" were given in the questionnaire to see if our assumption was right as to whether or not the strong context was more likely to trigger an English topic.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

This section describes the subjects, methods, procedures and results of our study.

Subjects

Approximately sixty-five female Mandarin students of English from *Long-Cuen* senior high school[6] were asked to participate in our experiment. They were 27 first-year students (average age: 16), 17 second-year students (average age: 17), and 21 third-year students (average age: 18). For the sake of equal size for comparison, 15 students in each level were chosen. In addition, there were 15 native speakers of English who served as native controls. Among them, 9 were foreign students at the Mandarin Training Center of National Taiwan Normal University and 6 were English teachers in the English Training Center of the same school.

In order to minimize the discrepancy in the number of years of learning within the same group, the background information of each subject was provided in terms of the number of years of learning English before she entered junior high school. The average number of years of learning in the three experimental groups was as follows: Group 1 = 3.82 years; Group 2 = 4.78 years; Group 3 = 5.76 years.

Methodology and Procedure

In our experiment, two tasks were designed according to four factors: groups, contexts, topic types and construction variables. The group effect refers to the responses from subjects at different levels. To see if there were a context effect, we designed strong and weak contexts. Strong contexts refer to the contexts in which specific topics are mentioned and weak contexts are the contexts in which no specific topics are spoken of. It is assumed that Chinese speakers may produce more topics in the strong contexts, but not as many as they do in the weak contexts. In addition, two topic types were investigated in this study: nongap and moved. And with regard to the construction variables we examined five types: double nominatives, prepositional phrases, double-nominatives with a resumptive pronoun, prepositional phrases with a resumptive pronoun, and subject-predicates, as can be seen in Table 1:

Table 1
Test Sentences for the Five Types of Constructions

Construction	Resumptive pronoun	Example
Double nominatives	Yes (Type 1)	*The fruits, I like apples the best. (with a nongap topic) *That guy$_i$, I believe I have seen e$_i$ before. (with a moved topic)
	No (Type 4)	* That guy$_i$, I believe I have seen him$_i$ before.
Prepositional phrase	Yes (Type 2)	As for the fruits, I like apples the best. (with a nongap topic) * As for that guy$_i$, I believe I have seen e$_i$ before. (with a moved topic)
	No (Type 5)	As for that guy$_i$, I believe I have seen him$_i$ before.
Subject-predicate	No (Type 3)	I like apples best. I believe I have seen that guy before.

Type 1 constructions, which are less acceptable in English, come from direct translation of sentences with a base-generated topic in Chinese. Type 2 constructions introduce a base-generated topic with expressions like *as for, for, with regard to, thinking of*, etc. In English, these constructions are acceptable for sentences with a nongap topic, but less acceptable for sentences with a moved topic. In Chinese, the empty element can either be spelled out or remain empty. Type 3 constructions are the most common type in English. Type 4 occurs in sentences with a moved topic, in which the gap is filled by a pronoun coindexed with the topic NP. For sentences with a moved topic to be more acceptable in English, besides the added expressions like *as for, for, think of*, etc., the gap or the empty element needs to be realized by a pronoun. In sum, five types of possible constructions in IL are predicated based on the linguistic variations between Chinese and English. Types 1, 2, 4 and 5 are topic constructions which exhibit features of topic-prominence. Type 3, however, is a typical English sentence and shows subject-prominence.

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[6] This school is located in Taipei.

The two tasks were an ordering (OR) task and an acceptability judgment (AJ) task. The former was considered to be a production task, and the latter a comprehension task. In the production task, the subjects had to base their understanding on the given situation in order to put the phrases in order[7]. In the acceptability judgment test, subjects were asked to judge the acceptability of constructions of Types 1 to 3 based on the given situation. Five levels of acceptability were designed ranging from very acceptable (5 points), through acceptable (4 points), so-so (3 points), less acceptable (2 points) to very unacceptable (1 point).

All the subjects were given the OR task first, immediately followed by the AJ task. Altogether, 20 situations were designed according to the topic types, as can be seen in Table 2:

Table 2
The Number of Test Sentences in the Given Situations

Type	Strong context (S)	Weak context (W)
Non-gap topic	3	3
Moved topic	3	3
Filler[8]	8	
Total	20	

Now let us outline the following possible construction types, which may be found in the interlanguage of Chinese speakers learning English. Table 3 describes a strong context with all possible answers to the question in that context:

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[7] They needed not make use of all the phrases listed but they could do so, and also the capitalization and punctuation were not the focus.

[8] Filler sentences as illustrated in the example below served as distracters in the test to prevent the subjects from knowing that the test was related to subject-prominence:

(i) ____ John and you will go fishing this afternoon. John said, "We'll catch a lot of fish today." You will say, (1) I don't know. (2) I hope so. (3) Thank you.

Table 3
Possible Answers in the Given Context

Strong context to elicit a non-gap topic
You and your classmates are talking about your traveling experiences in America. Talking about Yosemite, you may tell your classmate, POSSIBLE ANSWERS <Type 1>Yosemite, the waterfalls are very beautiful. <Type2>As for Yosemite, the waterfalls are very beautiful. <Type3> The waterfalls in Yosemite are very beautiful.
Strong context to elicit a moved topic
David knows that your TV has been broken for days. He asks "Did you have your TV repaired?" You will answer him, POSSIBLE ANSWERS <Type 1>My TV, I still can't watch. <Type 2>As for my TV, I still can't watch. <Type 3>I still can't watch my TV. <Type 4>My TV, I still can't watch it. <Type 5>As for my TV, I still can't watch it.
Weak context to elicit a non-gap topic
John and you are sports fans. You two are chatting in the classroom. You tell John, POSSIBLE ANSWERS <Type 1>All the tennis stars, Michael Chang is my favorite player. <Type 2>As for tennis stars, Michael Chang is my favorite player. <Type 3>Michael Chang is my favorite tennis player.
Weak context to elicit a moved topic
Your friend dresses beautifully today. After praising her, you ask, POSSIBLE ANSWERS <Type 1>This skirt, where did you buy? <Type 2>As for this skirt, where did you buy? <Type 3>Where did you buy the skirt? <Type 4> This skirt, where did you buy it? <Type 5>As for this skirt, where did you buy it?

The questionnaire was written in two languages—English (for English native controls) and Chinese (for Chinese learners). The descriptions of the situation and instructions for our L2 subjects were written in Chinese so that they would not have difficulty in understanding the test sentences. The vocabulary in the test sentences was quite simple and Chinese translations were given if it was a new vocabulary word.

Mean scores for each construction type of the same situation were later calculated. Basically, the output fell into 5 types as predicted in Table 3. The production frequency of the five construction types was calculated. Outputs which did not fit the given construction types were few[9].

RESULTS

A four-way ANOVA (α=0.05) was used to test the significance of interaction between the factors. Mean frequency and mean scores were defined as the dependent variable in the production and comprehension tasks. Results are tabulated in Table 4:

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[9] These marginal outputs are not discussed here.

Table 4
The Significance of Each Factor and the Interaction between Factors

Source	Production		Comprehension	
	F-value	Sig.	F-value	Sig.
Construction*group*context*topic	0.31	0.10	1.04	0.41
Construction*group*context	0.78	0.68	0.22	0.97
Construction*group*topic	1.35	0.25	0.48	0.83
Construction*context*topic	1.19	0.29	62.86	0.00*
Group*context*topic	0.02	0.10	2.30	0.08
Construction*group	9.78	0.00 *	15.47	0.00*
Construction*context	0.80	0.52	0.41	0.66
Construction*topic	28.64	0.00 *	4.92	0.01*
Group*context	0.00	1.00	0.24	0.87
Group*topic	0.13	0.94	0.72	0.54
Context*topic	0.06	0.80	6.02	0.02*
Construction	530.30	0.00*	396.45	0.00*
Group	1.08	0.36	20.80	0.00*
Topic	0.55	0.46	4.90	0.03*
Context	0.02	0.88	0.09	0.76

As for single factors we can see that the construction type was crucial in both tasks. However, the results of the two tasks show a slight task effect. The group effect and topic type were found to be significant in the comprehension task, but not in the production task.[10] Surprisingly, the contexts were not significantly important in determining which construction types to use. That is to say, no matter how strong or weak the context was in eliciting certain types of construction, our subjects were not influenced.

With regard to the interaction between factors, the results of the two tasks matched quite well in that construction types indeed interacted with groups and with topic types. Since the most important factors are construction types, groups and topic types, the following section will discuss these factors in greater detail.

DISCUSSION

As shown in Table 5, most of our subjects used the third type of construction, subject-predicate construction, which is acceptable both in Chinese and English:

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[10] As shown in Table 4, a significant group effect was found only in the comprehension task. This result was rather interesting. Many thanks go to one of the reviewers for pointing out that the result may be due to the fact that the production task in the present study was a written task, which gave the subjects more time to contemplate their output. Hence, no group effects were found in the production task. This explanation, however, is different from what was found in Chen and Shi (1999) and Chen and Liao (1999), where tasks used in examining topic construction and comprehension tasks (i.e., an acceptability judgment task) were found to be significant, but production tasks were not. The only production task that showed the task effects was the composition task, but the story-retelling task did not. This again shows that task variability can be further explored in a follow-up study.

Table 5
Subjects' Production Frequency for Each Construction Type

Construction	Type1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4	Type 5
Group 1	0.31	0.50	1.50	0.05	0.20
Group 2	0.15	0.18	2.37	0.02	0.12
Group 3	0.13	0.42	2.07	0.02	0.28
Native controls	0.02	0.32	2.47	0.02	0.15

The post hoc *Scheffe* test shows that Group 1 and Group 2 responded differently in producing Type 3 constructions, and their difference has reached the level of significance. But there was no significant difference between Group 2, Group 3 and the native speakers (NS). That is to say, Group 1 still produced significantly fewer sentences of Type 3 constructions than other groups and they might not yet have fully learned that English is a subject-prominent language. Moreover, except for Type 3 constructions, there was no significant difference among the four groups in producing other constructions. In short, the production rate of the other four types of construction for our Chinese subjects wasn't so significantly different from that of the English native speakers. In other words, our Chinese subjects rarely produced sentences with topics, contrary to what we expected. L1 (Chinese) transfer was found to be not significant at all in their interlanguage.

Table 6 shows the subjects' production of non-gap topics in the five types of constructions:

Table 6
Subjects' Production Frequency for Non-gap Topics

Construction	Type1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4	Type 5
Group 1	0.37	0.77	1.27	0.00	0.00
Group 2	0.30	0.30	2.20	0.00	0.00
Group 3	0.23	0.83	1.80	0.00	0.00
Native controls	0.03	0.63	2.30	0.00	0.00

As can be seen in Table 6, the production trend is: Type 3 > Type 2 > Type 1. No subject produced sentences with Type 4 and Type 5 constructions, suggesting that our subjects would not produce a resumptive pronoun in Type 4 and Type 5 constructions for non-gap topic contexts. The post hoc *Scheffe* test shows the same result as the overall production: except in their production of Type 3 constructions, our subjects showed no significant differences between groups. In addition, it was found that Group 1 produced significantly fewer sentences with Type 3 constructions than the other groups.

Now let us turn to the subjects' production of moved topics, as shown in Table 7:

Table 7
Subjects' Mean Frequency in Producing Moved Topics

Construction	Type1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4	Type 5
Group 1	0.27	0.23	1.73	0.10	0.40
Group 2	0.00	0.07	2.53	0.03	0.23
Group 3	0.03	0.00	2.33	0.03	0.57
Native controls	0.03	0.00	2.63	0.03	0.03

As shown in Table 7, the subjects' production trend is: Type 3 >Type 5>Type 1> Type 2>Type 4. Here, sentences of Type1, Type 2 and Type 4 are less acceptable in English.[11] Neither of the four groups of subjects had a high production rate for these ill-formed constructions. That is, they tended to produce acceptable sentences (such as sentences of Type 3 or 5) more. Besides, no significant differences were found between groups in their production of these construction types, indicating that our Chinese subjects have noticed the difference between Chinese and English and their speech production was similar to that of the English native speakers in the moved-topic context. That is to say, our Chinese subjects would use a pronoun in sentences which contain a moved topic, as in Type 5 constructions. This shows that they have learned that the empty category is not allowed in English. But, their production rate for Type 5 constructions was still lower than that for Type 3 constructions. Evidently, our Chinese subjects have learned to accept the subject-prominent feature in English.

The experimental results of our production task seem different from the findings of previous studies (cf. Green, 1996; Rutherford, 1983; Yip, 1996). Rutherford (1983) found that it was easy for low proficiency level SP learners to transfer the TP feature to their interlanguage. Green (1996) claimed that the speakers of a TP language tended to transfer the TP feature to the target language and had great difficulty in acquiring the intricate grammar of an SP language. Yip (1996), from a learnability point of view, proposed that Chinese topic structures are the superset while English topic structures are the subset, and that in acquiring English, learners, without the benefit of negative evidence, will have a hard time unlearning the topic structures in their L2. Interestingly, Yuan's (1995) study found that English-speaking learners (i.e., learners of a subset language) acquired the base-generated topics of Chinese (i.e., a superset language) late. Our results in the production task seem to confirm his findings, and show that the subject-prominent feature in English was easy for our Chinese speakers to learn and that they learn this feature at an early stage. In other words, parameter resetting from a superset language to a subset language is easier than that from a subset language to a superset one.

Now let us turn to the results of the comprehension task, as shown in Table 8:

Table 8
Subjects' Responses to the Acceptability Judgment Task

Construction	Type1	Type 2	Type 3
Group 1	3.23	3.36	4.10
Group 2	2.95	3.10	4.57
Group 3	2.98	3.24	4.64
Native controls	2.02	2.63	4.66

In response to Type 1, a double nominative construction, our native speakers (NS) scored 2.0, which was significant compared to the experimental groups according to the *Scheffe* test. As in the production task, there was no significant group effect. Group 1, Group 2, and Group 3 tended to accept the double nominative

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[11] Examples of these three types are as follows:

(i) *That guy, I believe I have seen before.	(Type 1)
(ii) *As for that guy, I believe I have seen before.	(Type 2)
(iii)*That guy, I believe I have seen him before.	(Type 4)

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construction, which is acceptable in Chinese but less acceptable in English, more easily than our native controls. Moreover, our native speakers, with a score of 2.0, intuitively judged Type 1 constructions as "less acceptable," while all Chinese learners, scoring about 3, considered sentences of Type 1 constructions so-so, but not clearly "less acceptable."

With regard to Type 2 constructions, also topic constructions, our native speakers scored 2.63. That is to say, they found this type more acceptable than Type 1 constructions (score: 2.02). Type 2 constructions to them are between "so-so" and "less acceptable." Comparing our native speakers' responses with our Chinese learners', we found that only Group 1 showed a significant difference, indicating that Group 1 favors more topic-prominence features than the other experimental groups. The Chinese learners as a whole tended to accept Type 2 constructions more than the native controls. A closer look at Type 1 and Type 2 constructions shows that the acceptance score of our native speakers for these two types of constructions was quite low. This is simply because our native speakers of English, a subject-prominent language, felt more reluctant to accept sentences with topic-prominent features than our experimental groups. This finding is quite different from that for the production task, in which the Chinese speakers hardly produced sentences with topic constructions.

As for the responses to Type 3 constructions, subject-predicate constructions, the group effect was again not significant. In other words, our Chinese learners and native speakers responded quite similarly in accepting sentences with subject-predicate features. This result is slightly different from that for the production task, because Group 1 did not show a significant difference in comprehending Type 3 constructions compared with other groups, and especially with the native controls on the acceptability judgment task.

Now let us discuss our subjects' responses to the topic types.

The mean scores for acceptance of the five construction types in situations that contain nongap topics are reported in Table 9:

Table 9
Subjects' Comprehension of Non-gap Topics[12]

Construction	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3
Group 1	3.22	3.42	4.13
Group 2	3.05	3.20	4.52
Group 3	3.05	3.44	4.57
Native controls	2.07	2.97	4.66

Our subjects' responses to Type 1 constructions were quite similar to their production results. The acceptance scores of our experimental groups were not significantly different. But our Chinese learners' acceptance of Type 1 constructions was statistically different from that of the native speakers. That is to say, our Chinese learners did show L1 transfer when they were asked to judge whether the sentences with Type 1 constructions were acceptable. But there were no statistically significant differnces between the four groups in accepting sentences with Type 2 and Type 3 constructions.

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[12] As can be seen in Table 9, our native speakers showed that they strongly preferred Type 3 sentences (4.66) to Type 2 sentences, and they least accepted Type 1 sentences. One of the reviewers considered this result rather surprising. According to the information given by the reviewer, the usage of *as for*, as stated in the *Collins Cobuild* dictionary, is "at the beginning of a sentence in order to introduce a topic or point that is different what has just been said although it is related to it." Further research may look into the difference of nongap topics with respect to different prepositions and see if the presence of different prepositions will affect the acceptability results.

Now let us consider our subjects' acceptance of sentences with moved topics:

Table 10
Subjects' Comprehension of Moved Topics

Construction	Type1	Type 2	Type 3
Group 1	3.23	3.30	4.20
Group 2	2.86	3.00	4.62
Group 3	2.92	3.04	4.71
Native controls	1.97	2.33	4.66

Tables 9 and 10 show a similar tendency. The only difference is related to on Type 2 sentences. Type 2 constructions are PP constructions, which introduce a base-generated topic with expressions like *as for, for, think of,* etc. For sentences containing a nongap topic, Type 2 constructions are well-formed in English. However, when an empty element is left in the comment sentence, sentences of Type 2 constructions then become less acceptable. Since English does not exhibit empty categories, the degree of acceptance of Type 2 constructions is relatively low in moved-topic (=2.33) situations, compared with that in nongap topic (=2.97) situations. Comparing our native speakers with the Chinese learners, we found that only Group 1 showed a significant difference from the native controls. This shows that only Group 1 has not yet noticed that empty elements are not permitted in English.

CONCLUSION

This paper started with a discussion of L1 transfer and the learnability problem. Two contradictory views of typology transfer have been held in the literature. Fuller & Gundel (1987) claimed that there is a universal topic-comment stage. However, Huebner (1983), Jin (1994), Rutherford (1983) and Schachter & Rutherford (1979) proposed that not only TP but also SP is transferable. Based on either view, it is predicted that there will be L1 transfer in the process of Chinese speakers learning English, characterized by TP features in the interlanguage. However, this prediction is not entirely borne out in the present study. Interestingly, in our study some L1 transfer effect was found in the double nominative construction, but only in the comprehension task, not the production task. In the production task, the production rate for Topic constructions—Types 1, 2, 4, 5—was so low that it was statistically non-significant.

A learnability problem is predicted based on the hypothesis that there is a subset/superset relation between English and Chinese (cf. White, 1989; Yip, 1996; Zobl, 1986). However, the prediction that Chinese speakers will have difficulty in learning subject-prominence in English was not borne out in the present study. Our Chinese learners did perfectly well in producing and accepting sentences with Type 3 constructions (i.e., subject-predicate sentences). Our findings seem to argue against White (1989)[13], who claims that if the L1 has a superset parameter value, and the L2 requires a subset value (i.e., from superset to subset), then resetting of parameters will be difficult, since it requires negative evidence and it is generally difficult to obtain negative evidence in the linguistic environment. If so, the kind of input that our subjects received in class becomes crucial. It is likely that classroom instruction helped our subjects facilitate their L2 acquisition. That is the reason why most subjects had no difficulty in performing the two tasks. But further investigation of this possibility is necessary.

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[13] White (1989) claims that it is easier to reset from an unmarked L1 to a marked L2 (i.e., from subset to superset), and positive L2 evidence will help to disconfirm the L1 parameter value.

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APPENDIX I

Tasks for the Chinese Subjects

Test I：The Ordering Task

下面有20個問題，每一題都有一個情境，請根據情境，排列出一個完整的句子。注意：你不一定要用上所有的字，但也可全用。不用管字的大小寫。

例：早上，來學校，碰到李老師，你會說：
how are you is Miss Li ，
1 2 3 4 5
答：1254 ？

1. 你的同學今天打扮得很漂亮，稱讚她後，你問：
this skirt where did you buy as for it ，
1 2 3 4 5
→__________________?

2. 你上學老是匆匆忙忙，忘東忘西。這天學校要交學費，出門前，媽媽問:「東西帶齊了沒？」你回答：
my tuition(學費) I've already put in my bag as for ， it
1 2 3 4 5 6
→__________________.

3. 明天放假，你不知道要做什麼，你會說：
to the library will you go with me tomorrow
1 2 3 4
→__________________?

4. David 邀你週末去海邊玩，你會回答:
a that's idea good ，
1 2 3 4 5
→ __________________.

5. 你看起來心情不好，Jean 問:「你怎麼了？」你回答:
I keys lost have my
1 2 3 4 5
→ __________________ ?

6. Jones 對你說:「今天運氣真不好，我的手錶竟然不見了！」你會說：
me， too it's not mine， either I lost my money
1 2 3 4 5
→__________________.

7. John 問:「你這次月考考的那麼爛，你爸爸有沒有說什麼？」你回答：
I don't know. I could not tell if he was angry him he was disappointed(失望)
1 2 3 4 5
→__________________.

8. 你和朋友正在談論你們喜愛的各國歌手，談到英國歌手，你會說：
singers in UK I love the Spice Girls(辣妹) and Backstreet Boys(新好男孩) most
1 2
as for ，
3 4
→__________________.

9. 你和 John 去釣魚，John 說:「我們今天一定會滿載而歸。」你會說:

so	think	hope	I	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________.

10. 你爸爸正在看氣象預報，你會問他：

tomorrow	will	rain	it	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________?

11. 你跟媽媽描述你們班上剛從巴拉圭來的新同學，你說

languages	can	he	speak	many
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________.

12. 你和 John 是超級球迷，你們在教室聊天，你告訴 John:

as for	，	Michael Chang is my favorite player	all the tennis stars
1	2	3	4

→ ________ ______________.

13. David 知道你的電視壞了好幾天，他問:「你電視修好了嗎？」，你會回答

I still can’t watch	，	my TV	as for	it
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________.

14. John 模擬考考不好，很難過，開始擔心自己，他自言自語地說：

The JCEE(大學聯考)	I wonder whether I can pass(過)	it	as for	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________.

15. 學期將結束，同學抱怨課業繁重，她說:「我有八科要考期末考，一科要交報告。」你問:「報告寫完沒？」，她回答:

my report	as for	I’ve just handed	in	，	it
1	2	3	4	5	6

→ ______________. (hand in 交出去)

16. 你和 John 正在東家長西家短，談論同學的事，John 說：

Jackie	’s	his	parents just got divorced last week	as for	，	
1	2	3	4		5	6

→ ______________.

17. 你和朋友走在街上，你看到一個人有點面熟，你可能會跟你朋友說：

that guy(那個人)	I believe I have seen	him	as for	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________.

18. 你跟同學在聊美國旅遊的經驗，說到 Yosemite(優勝美地：美國一國家公園)，你告訴朋友說：

Yosemite	the waterfalls	are very beautiful	as for	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________?

19. 你和 Jean 在餐館用餐，正在喝開胃酒，你說：「酒我最喜歡白酒。」Jean 問：「那水果呢？」你回答：

I like apples the best	，	fruits	as for
1	2	3	4

→ ______________.

20. John 問:「我可以用你的字典嗎？」你會回答:

why not	it’s	of course	over there	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________.

Test II：Acceptability Judgment

下面有 20 個問題，每一題都有一個情境和 3 個句子，請根據情境，分別判斷你對句子的接受程度。可能的話，請更正你(非常)不接受的句子。

	非常接受	接受	普通	不接受	非常不接受
1. 你和朋友正在談論你們喜愛的各國歌手，談到英國歌手，你會說：					
(1)The U.K. singers, I love the Spice Girls(辣妹) and Backstreet Boys(新好男孩) most.	□	□	□	□	□
(2)With regard to singers in the UK, I love the Spice Girls and Backstreet Boys most.	□	□	□	□	□
(3) I love the Spice Girls and Backstreet Boys most.	□	□	□	□	□
2. 你和 John 正在東家長西家短，談論同學的事，John 說：					
(1) Jackie, his parents just got divorced(離婚) last week.	□	□	□	□	□
(2) As for Jackie, his parents just got divorced last week.	□	□	□	□	□
(3) Jackie's parents just got divorced last week.	□	□	□	□	□
3. 你上學老是匆匆忙忙，忘東忘西。這天學校要交學費，出門前，媽媽問:「東西帶齊了沒？」你回答：					
(1)My tuition(學費), I've already put in my bag.	□	□	□	□	□
(2)As for my tuition, I've already put in my bag.	□	□	□	□	□
(3) I've already put my tuition in my bag.	□	□	□	□	□
4. Jones 對你說:「今天運氣真不好，我的手錶竟然不見了！」你會說：					
(1)It must be an expensive watch.	□	□	□	□	□
(2)It's not mine, either. I lost my money.	□	□	□	□	□
(3) I am very sad.	□	□	□	□	□
5. 你跟媽媽描述你們班上剛從巴拉圭來的新同學，你說：					
(1) Many languages can he speak.	□	□	□	□	□
(2) Many languages he can speak.	□	□	□	□	□
(3) He can speak many languages.	□	□	□	□	□
6. 你爸爸正在看氣象預報，你會問他：					
(1)Dad, can I watch cartoon now?	□	□	□	□	□
(2)Should I bring an umbrella tomorrow?	□	□	□	□	□
(3)Will it rain tomorrow?	□	□	□	□	□
7. John 模擬考考不好，很難過，開始擔心自己，他自言自語地說：					
(1) The JCEE(大學聯考), I wonder whether I can pass(過).	□	□	□	□	□
(2) As for the JCEE, I wonder whether I can pass.	□	□	□	□	□
(3) I wonder whether I can pass the JCEE.	□	□	□	□	□
8. 你和 John 是超級球迷，你們在教室聊天，你告訴 John:					
(1) All the tennis stars, Michael Chang(張德培) is my favorite player.	□	□	□	□	□
(2) As for all the tennis stars, Michael Chang is my favorite player.	□	□	□	□	□
(3) Michael Chang is my favorite player.	□	□	□	□	□

9. John 問：「我可以用你的字典嗎？」你會回答：
(1) I have no dictionary, so I can't lend you. □ □ □ □ □
(2) It's over there. □ □ □ □ □
(3) I'm sorry I can't. Why don't you ask Jackie? □ □ □ □ □

10. 明天放假，你不知道要做什麼，你會說：
(1)The library, will you go with me tomorrow? □ □ □ □ □
(2)To the library, will you go with me tomorrow? □ □ □ □ □
(3) Will you go to the library with me tomorrow? □ □ □ □ □

11. 你和 Jean 在餐館用餐，正在喝開胃酒，你說：「酒我最喜歡白酒。」Jean 問：「那水果呢？」你回答：
(1) Fruits, I like apples the best. □ □ □ □ □
(2) As for fruits, I like apples the best. □ □ □ □ □
(3) I like apples the best. □ □ □ □ □

12. 你和朋友走在街上，你看到一個人有點面熟，你可能會跟你朋友說：
(1)That guy(那個人), I believe I have seen. □ □ □ □ □
(2)About that guy, I believe I have seen. □ □ □ □ □
(3) I believe I have seen that guy. □ □ □ □ □

13. John 問:「你這次月考考的那麼爛，你爸爸有沒有說什麼？」你回答：
(1) He said let bygones be bygones(不再追究過去). □ □ □ □ □
(2) I could not tell if he was angry. □ □ □ □ □
(3) He was quite disappointed(失望). □ □ □ □ □

14. David 邀你週末去海邊玩，你會回答:
(1)We can take a city bus. □ □ □ □ □
(2)That's too bad. □ □ □ □ □
(3) That's a good idea. □ □ □ □ □

15. 你跟同學在聊美國旅遊的經驗，說到 Yosemite(優勝美地：美國一國家公園)，你告訴朋友說：
(1) Yosemite, the waterfalls are very beautiful. □ □ □ □ □
(2) As for Yosemite, the waterfalls are very beautiful. □ □ □ □ □
(3) The waterfalls in Yosemite are very beautiful. □ □ □ □ □

16. 學期將結束，同學抱怨課業繁重，她說:「我有八科要考期末考，一科要交報告。」你問:「報告寫完沒？」，她回答：
(1) My report, I've just handed in (交出去) . □ □ □ □ □
(2) As for my report, I've just handed in . □ □ □ □ □
(3) I've just handed in my report. □ □ □ □ □

17. 你的同學今天打扮得很漂亮，稱讚她後，你問：
(1) This skirt, where did you buy? □ □ □ □ □
(2) As for this skirt, where did you buy? □ □ □ □ □
(3) Where did you buy this skirt? □ □ □ □ □

18. 你看起來心情不好，Jean 問:「你怎麼了？」你回答：
(1) Camping at the lake can be exciting. □ □ □ □ □
(2) Leave me alone(讓我靜一靜), would you? □ □ □ □ □
(3) I lost my keys. □ □ □ □ □

19. 你和 John 去釣魚，John 說：「我們今天一定會滿載而歸。」你會說：
(1)I don't know. □ □ □ □ □
(2)I hope so. □ □ □ □ □
(3)Thank you. □ □ □ □ □

20. David 知道你的電視壞了好幾天，他問:「你電視修好了嗎？」，你會回答：
    (1)My TV, I still can't watch. □ □ □ □ □
    (2)As for my TV, I still can't watch. □ □ □ □ □
    (3)I still can't watch my TV. □ □ □ □ □

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

APPENDIX Ⅱ

Tasks for the Native Controls

Test I: The Ordering Task

Directions: Below are 20 questions. Each has a situation describing a given event. Based on the given context, rearrange each of the following words into a good sentence.

Example: It's morning. On your way to school, you meet Miss Li, and you will say,

how	are you	is	Miss Li	，
1	2	3	4	5

Answer→ 1 2 5 4 ____ ?

1. Your friend dresses beautifully today. After praising her, you ask,

this skirt	where did you buy	as for	it	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________________ ?

2. You always go to school in a hurry every morning. As a result, you forget things easily. Today is the due date for handing in your tuition. Before you leave, your mom asks, "Do you have everything you need?" You will say,

my tuition	I've already put	in my bag	as for	，	it
1	2	3	4	5	6

→ ______________________ .

3. Tomorrow is a holiday. You don't know what to do, and you say to your classmate,

to	the library	will you go	with me tomorrow
1	2	3	4

→ ______________________ ?

4. David says, " How about going to the beach this weekend?" You will say,

a	that's	idea	good	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ________________ .

5. You seem to be in a bad mood. Jean asks, "What happened?" You say,

I	keys	lost	have	my
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________________ ?

6. Jones says, "Today isn't my day. I lost my watch." You say,

me，	too	it's not mine，	either	I lost my money
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________________ .

7. You did a bad job on this exam. John asks, "Did your father say anything about your exam?" You may say,

I don't know.	I could not tell	if he was angry	him	he was disappointed
1	2	3	4	5

→ ______________________ .

8. You and your friend are talking about your favorite singers in different countries. Talking about singers in the UK, you say,

Singers in UK	I love the Spice Girls and Backstreet Boys most	with regard to	，
1	2	3	4

→ ______________________ .

9. You and John will go fishing this afternoon. John said, "We'll catch a lot of fish today." You will say,

so	think	hope	I	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ________________ .

10. Your father is watching the weather report on TV. You may ask him

tomorrow	will	it	rain	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ____________________ ?

11. You talk to your mom about your new classmate from Kenya. You say,

languages	can	he	speak	many
1	2	3	4	5

→ ____________________ .

12. You and John are sports fans. You two are chatting in the classroom. You tell John,

as for	，	Michael Chang is my favorite player	all the tennis stars
1	2	3	4

→ ____________________ .

13. David knows that your TV has been broken for days. He asks, "Did you have your TV repaired?" You will answer him,

I still can't watch	，	my TV	as for	it
1	2	3	4	5

→ ____________________ .

14. John got a low grade on the exam, and he starts to worry. He murmurs to himself,

the JCEE(the Joint College Entrance Exam)	I wonder whether I can pass	it	as for	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ____________________ .

15. At the end of the semester, your classmate is complaining about the pressure. She says, "I have eight final exams and one term paper." You ask, "Did you finish your paper?" She will say,

my report	as for	I've just handed	in	，	it
1	2	3	4	5	6

→ ____________________ .

16. You and John are gossiping about your classmates. John says,

Jackie	's	his	parents just got divorced last week	as for	，
1	2	3	4	5	6

→ ____________________ .

17. You are walking down the street with your friend, and suddenly you see someone familiar. You say to your friend,

that guy	I believe I have seen	him	as for	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ____________________ .

18. You and your classmates are talking about your traveling experiences in America. Talking about Yosemite, you may tell your classmates,

Yosemite	the waterfalls	are very beautiful	as for	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ____________________ .

19. You and Jean are having a drink in a restaurant. You say, "My favorite wine is white wine." Then, Jean asks "How about fruits?" You will say,

I like apples the best	，	fruits	as for
1	2	3	4

→ ____________________ .

20. John asks, "May I use your dictionary?" You will say,

why not	it's	of course	over there	，
1	2	3	4	5

→ ____________________ .

Test II: The Acceptability Judgment

Directions: Below are 20 questions. Each has a situation describing a given event and 3 sentences. Based on the given context, decide whether each of the sentences is very acceptable(VA), acceptable(A), so-so (SS), less acceptable (LES), or least acceptable (LAA). For those unacceptable sentences, make a possible correction.

	VA	A	SS	LEA	LAA
1. You and your friend are talking about your favorite singers in different countries. Talking about singers in UK, you say,					
(1) The UK singers, I love the Spice Girls and Backstreet Boys most.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(2) With regard to singers in UK, I love the Spice Girls and Backstreet Boys most.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(3) I love the Spice Girls and Backstreet Boys most.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. You and John are gossiping about your classmates. John says,					
(1) Jackie, his parents just got divorced last week.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(2) As for Jackie, his parents just got divorced last week.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(3) Jackie's parents just got divorced last week.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. You always go to school in a hurry every morning. As a result, you forget things easily. Today is the due date for handing in your tuition. Before you leave, your mom asks, "Do you have everything you need?" You will say,					
(1) My tuition, I've already put in my bag.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(2) As for my tuition, I've already put in my bag.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(3) I've already put my tuition in my bag.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Jones says, "Today isn't my day. I lost my watch." You may say,					
(1) It must be an expensive watch.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(2) It's not mine, either. I lost my money.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(3) I am very sad.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. You talk to your mom about your new classmate from Kenya. You say,					
(1)Many languages can he speak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(2) Many languages he can speak.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(3) He can speak many languages.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Your father is watching the weather report on TV. You may ask him,					
(1) Dad, can I watch cartoons now?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(2) Should I bring an umbrella tomorrow?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(3) Will it rain tomorrow?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. John got a low grade on the exam, and he starts to worry. He murmurs to himself,					
(1) The JCEE (the Joint College Entrance Exam), I wonder whether I can pass.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(2) About the JCEE, I wonder whether I can pass.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(3) I wonder whether I can pass the JCEE.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. You and John are sports fans. You two are chatting in the classroom. You tell John,
   (1) All the tennis stars, Michael Chang is my favorite player. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) As for all the tennis stars, Michael Chang is my favorite player. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) Michael Chang is my favorite player. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
9. John asks, "May I use your dictionary?" You will say,
   (1) I have no dictionary, so I can't lend you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) It's over there. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) I'm sorry I can't. Why don't you ask Jackie? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
10. Tomorrow is a holiday. You don't know what to do, and you say to your classmate,
   (1) The library, will you go with me tomorrow? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) To the library, will you go with me tomorrow? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) Will you go to the library with me tomorrow? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
11. You and Jean are having a drink in a restaurant. You say "My favorite wine is white wine. " Then, Jean asks "How about fruits?" You will say,
   (1) Fruits, I like apples the best. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) As for fruits, I like apples the best. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) I like apples the best. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
12. You are walking down the street with your friend, and suddenly you see someone familiar. You may say to your friend,
   (1) That guy, I believed I have seen. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) About that guy, I believe I have seen. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) I believe I have seen that guy. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
13. You did a bad job on this exam. John asks, "Did your father say anything about your exam?" You may say,
   (1) He said let bygones be bygones. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) I could not tell if he was angry. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) He was quite disappointed. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
14. David says, "How about going to the beach this weekend?" You will say,
   (1) We can take a city bus. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) That's too bad. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) That's a good idea. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
15. You and your classmates are talking about your traveling experiences in America. Talking about Yosemite, you may tell your classmate,
   (1) Yosemite, the waterfalls are very beautiful. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) As for Yosemite, the waterfalls are very beautiful. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) The waterfalls in Yosemite are very beautiful. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
16. At the end of the semester, your classmate is complaining about the pressure. She says, "I have eight final exams and one term paper." You ask, "Did you finish your paper?" She will say,
   (1) My report, I've just handed in. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (2) As for my report, I've just handed in. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
   (3) I've just handed in my report. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

17. Your friend dresses beautifully today. After praising her, you ask,
    (1) This skirt, where did you buy? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
    (2) As for this skirt, where did you buy? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
    (3) Where did you buy this skirt? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

18. You seem to be in a bad mood. Jean asks, "What happened?" You say,
    (1) Camping at the lake can be exciting. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
    (2) Leave me alone, would you? ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
    (3) I lost my car keys. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

19. You and John will go fishing this afternoon. John said, "We'll catch a lot of fish today." You will say,
    (1) I don't know. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
    (2) I hope so. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
    (3) Thank you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

20. David knows that your TV has been broken for days. He asks, "Did you have your TV repaired?" You will answer him,
    (1) My TV, I still can't watch. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
    (2) As for my TV, I still can't watch. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
    (3) I still can't watch my TV. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

英語教學 *English Teaching & Learning*
27.4 (April 2003)

台灣學生第二語言習得中的英語「主詞顯著性」

摘要

中文具「主題顯著性」, 因此也可以說是一個「超級集合」(superset)語言；而英文則具「主詞顯著性」, 屬於一個「副集合」(subset)語言(參見 Li & Thompson, 1976; Huang, 1984)。本研究依中、英文的語言特性設計實驗，探討以「超級集合」語言(如：中文)為母語的人士學習「副集合」語言(如英文)時是否有學習困難。本實驗測試了 45 位以英語為外語的中國學生，其學習年限約 3~6 年，共參與了兩個實驗：一是「排序測驗」(an ordering task)，另一是「接受度測驗」(an acceptability judgment task)。研究發現，大部分受試的台灣學生對英文句子特性已能掌握，已成功習得英語的「主詞顯著性」, 唯在接受度測驗中發現仍有母語轉移的現象，大多數的中國學生較美國學生來得容易接受有「主題顯著性」的英文句子。

關鍵詞：第二語言習得　主詞顯著性　母語轉移　句法

以下為本刊二十六卷第三期至二十七卷第三期審查委員名單,《英語教學雜誌》編輯委員會在此致上誠摯的謝意。茲按姓名筆畫順序排列如下:

尤雪瑛老師(政治大學)
王鳳敏老師(台北市立師範學院)
古添洪老師(台灣師範大學)
朱惠美老師(台北市立師範學院)
朱錫琴老師(靜宜大學)
何慧玲老師(台灣師範大學)
吳靜蘭老師(台灣師範大學)
李櫻老師(台灣師範大學)
周見賢老師(台灣師範大學)
周碩貴老師(雲林科技大學)
林正昌老師(台灣師範大學)
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